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A summer workshop concerned with the education of the Spanish- and Indian-speaking students in New Mexico and Arizona met in Tucson, Arizona, to establish objectives regarding these children and their speaking problems. The students were dropping out of school as a result of academic and social failure and frustration.

Bicultural guidance, an approach involving both the teacher and the counselor, was suggested. The broad differences in the cultural patterns of value orientation were recognized. Sometimes the teacher may misjudge a student's motivation. The teacher should realize that many culturally different students have a hopeless attitude because of a deep-seated sense of inferiority growing from their competition with Anglo-American students.

In the area of oral communication, the teacher should emphasize intonation-pitch, juncture, and rhythm. He should help students master the skills of grammar, idoms, and idiomatic usage. Enrichment activities, such as cards and films, should be utilized. The use of art and drama for language learning has proven beneficial in the transference of self-developed drawings to verbalization. With the use of drama a plot, once established, could modify and correct poor sentence patterns. In art and drama, cultural values (differences and similarities) could be explained, discussed and evaluated.

Some of the reasons that Spanish and Indian students have difficulty with language is that they experience basic confusion about speech sounds. Remedial programs should be aimed at the needs of these students.

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BICULTURAL LINGUISTIC CONCEPTS IN EDUCATION

A Handbook of Suggestions
– Primary to Adult –
For
The Classroom Teacher
The Guidance Counselor
The Administrator

E. Roby Leighton, Editor

Price $2.25

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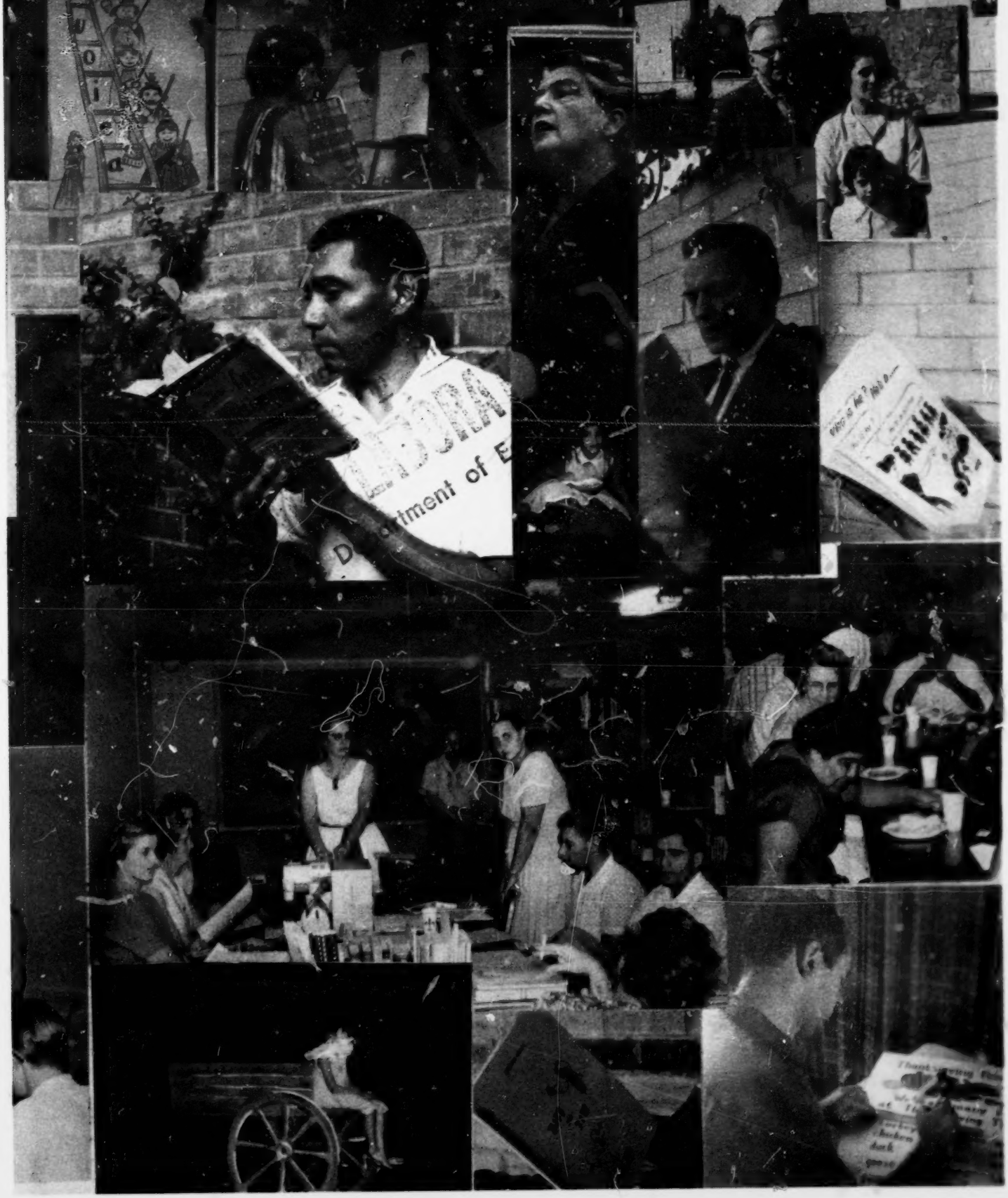

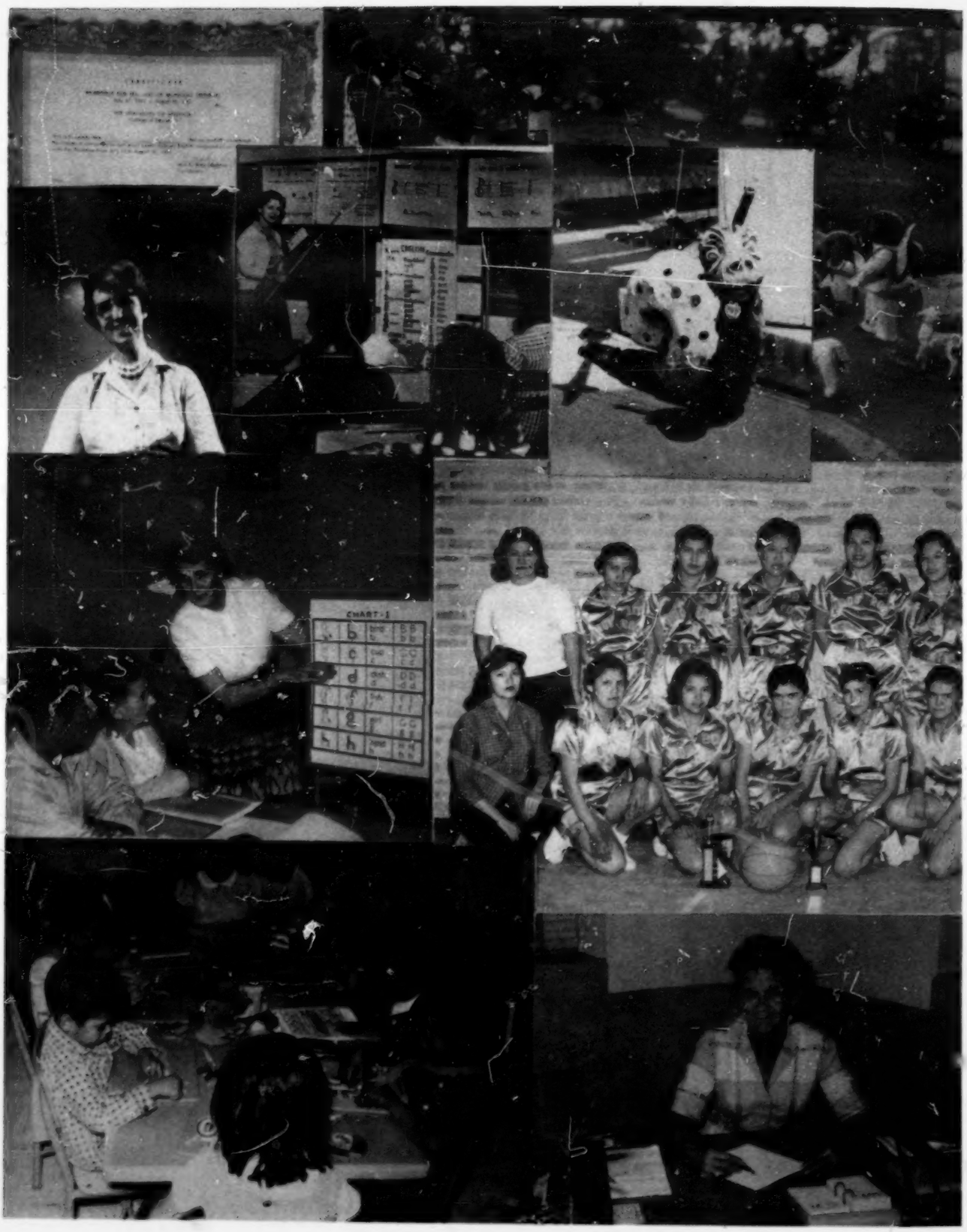
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PREFACE

In the workshop brochure on the opposite page are listed the objectives which have drawn together an expanding circle of teachers concerned with education of the Spanish and Indian speaking students who constitute between one-third and one-fourth of the school population in New Mexico and Arizona. Through the workshop, the ABC (Arizona Bilingual Council), their schools, and other inter-locking channels, information has been exchanged with educators in Colorado, Texas, and California.

Handbook material comprises a synthesis of almost 300 pages mineographed from workshop materials for Ed. 296s bulletins in 1961-62; non-collated 1963 materials; reports of ABC members and state Departments of Education; operational evaluations of teacher-developed and commercial materials; current research trends in teaching English as a second language in this country to American students – all considered from the point of view of the editor as principal writer. John – native, middle-class English speaker; Juan – Spanish speaker; Kee – Navajo speaker are primarily used as illustrations.

From the editor's vantage point of experience – as a Naval Reserve officer, Workshop Coordinator, and Educational Consultant, administration has been important; as a teacher of students from the third grade to graduate university level, workable classroom methods to meet students' needs for self-confidence in English have been important; as a counselor for beginners up to college adults, self-concepts and communication skills have been important; as past President of the ABC, community and academic programming have been important – the reciprocally interacting problems of administrators, counselors, and teachers are sketched as briefly, simply, and usefully as the limitations of this booklet permit.

Our three workshops (1961-63) received about $2,400 as subsidy from Arizona's Indian Education Division; summer session absorbed about $1,000 of deficit from insufficient students' fees. But it was the enthusiastic contribution of professional time by those listed herein which has constituted the major donation.

From experience, the basic premise of this handbook is that teachers form the core for introduction into classrooms of better learning techniques for culturally different students. Experts provide necessary resources from which workable applications to classroom problems can be derived. But as teachers must meet various needs of their students to achieve successful results, so must experts meet the various needs of the teachers who come to them with specific problems perceived within their own school populations.

WHAT RESULTS HAVE WE HAD FROM THE WORKSHOPS?

Over 90% of enrolled teachers, including four from Mexico, are teaching English as a second language. Seventeen students and six staff teachers are active in pilot programs and have variously influenced or directly taught other teachers – at conferences, by in-service training, and by personal demonstration.

Materials

Materials have been written. Manuals for teaching contrastive English-Spanish sentence patterns and sounds have been printed and introduced experimentally by Tucson, Arizona – District No. 1. Manuals for beginners and first grade Navajo students have been used by Gallup-McKinley County, New Mexico, for all bilinguals (with their writer as coordinator.) Materials written in the workshop have been used in classrooms by other than participants. London Council's international library for teachers sent for bulletins; Texas Western University has used them in sociology classes. New materials are constantly being developed for classroom use by individual teachers, and applications from commercial materials are being evaluated by them.

Workshop Participants

The number enrolled has grown from nine students in 1961 to forty participants in 1963; ten of them were foreign students, three were second year students doing individual research, and one was interested in volunteer adult teaching of Spanish workers.

Professional Interest

More than thirty of us participated in the first national conference for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages held in Tucson, May 1964. Six of us served on panels, for demonstrations with Spanish speaking students,

and as chairman of a film presentation of the excellent Teaching Films Custodian film. Two of us served on the local arrangements committee. Four attended the first NDEA Institute for teaching English held at the University of California at Los Angeles this summer.

WHOM DO THEY TEACH?

Navajos, Apaches, Papagos, Spanish speakers, and those from other cultural backgrounds.

WHAT LEVELS DO THEY TEACH?

Kindergarten to adult levels. Parents after school and on weekends – as volunteers.

WHY?

The dropout chain of frustration from academic and social failure leads many students directly to welfare as a continued family adjustment pattern. Administrators are not insensitive to investing a reasonable amount of time and money to save millions in reduced dropout rates. Two Tucson pilot programs, in a short two years, informally have been estimated to have saved a million dollars of taxpayers' money by eliminating wasted school time and future welfare payments. The3PMProgram in Phoenix – Ford Foundation funds – is currently attacking the counseling problem of study halls and tutors for these students by a paid and effective "buddy" approach. More important, educators see self-confidence and eagerness on faces of formerly apathetic or hostile students.

Acknowledgements are gratefully made to Mrs. Arline Hobson, Mrs. Louise Hayden, Mr. Jack Schwanke, and Mr. Emilio Escárcega for their assistance; also all workshop and ABC participants in their various roles.

Tucson, Arizona
September 1964

E. Roby Leighton, Ph. D.
Educational Consultant

"This is a papa bear," Mrs. Lucille P. Ellingboe (seated), member of the Workshop for Teachers of Bilingual Students at the University of Arizona, enunciates for kindergartners Myra Quintero, Spanish-speaking pupil, and Peter Cuppicio, whose first language is Papago. In a moment the children will repeat the phrase after their teacher. Looking on is Dr. Pauline Rojas who this week is consulting with leaders of the workshop. Oral drill is a fundamental part of the audio-lingual approach to language mastery. (Sheaffer photo)

NO ROYAL ROAD TO LANGUAGE MASTERY NOTED LINGUIST WARNS AT WORKSHOP

By Lou Anne Kirby

Dr. Pauline Rojas, diminutive, soft-spoken linguist who spent many years in San Juan, Puerto Rico, insists that there is no royal road to language learning.

Interviewed yesterday at the University of Arizona where she is assisting as consultant to the Workshop for teachers of Bilingual Students now in progress, Dr. Rojas observed that most persons "underestimate the time and effort necessary for real mastery of a language."

Miss E. Roby Leighton is coordinator of the workshop which includes lectures, discussions and classroom experience in teaching English as a second language. Children for the summer school come from La Reforma.

Consultant on bilingual education of Dade County Public Schools in Florida, Dr. Rojas also is directing a $250,000 Ford Foundation project in bilingual education.

"As long as language learning is kept within the confines of one class a day nothing will happen," she commented. "Students will learn only smattering of the language."

Pointing out the economic advantages of being bilingual, Dr. Rojas said that "Arizona has a tremendous unexploited language resource in its Spanish-speaking population." She looks toward a time when children who speak Spanish as a first language will become fully literate in both languages.

"Having a backlog of people who know neither language well is no asset to the state," she said.

Dr. Rojas has devoted much of her life to language research and education. She holds a master's degree from Teacher's College, Columbia University, and a doctorate from the University of Michigan.

After serving for many years as director of the English department of public schools in San Juan, she participated from 1952 to 1957 in the development of materials for teaching language by the audio-lingual method – the Fries-Rojas American English Series.

The method is based upon the fact that the sounds of a language convey its meaning. "Language is symbolic," Dr. Rojas told workshop members. "It consists of a system of arbitrary vocal symbols. We speak first and then write."

Repetition is a fundamental part of this approach. The student has to tune his ear to the rhythm, intonation and stress of the language. "For this reason," the linguist said, "it is necessary for him to repeat correct patterns without many changes."

She does not feel that teaching machines have great potential in language education. "The machine can't listen to the student and tell him he's wrong." In her lecture, she pointed out that a person whose ear is trained wrong will have great difficulty correcting the error.

Dr. Rojas is unenthusiastic about Esperanto, the proposed simplified international language. "Linguists don't believe in Esperanto," she said, "because language is arbitrary. It changes all the time." She added that "the meaning you get from a word depends on the experiences you associate with it." As an example, she cited the fact that although the English people and Americans speak the same language, "they don't always communicate."

"Attitude is very important in learning a language," Dr. Rojas believes. She quoted a study by Dr. Wallace Lambert of McGill University who concluded that "intelligence is less important than attitude in the mastery of a second language."

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TO ADMINISTRATORS

The October 1964 issue of "Harper's" arrived in the mail just as these two pages were scheduled for the printer. They have been rewritten because Dr. Schiller's "The Coming Revolution in Teaching English," is an article which "kills two birds with one stone" for administrators. A program for a minority group might be difficult to justify financially, but justification for a program which has a by-product beneficial to all students is not so difficult. In this connection, Dr. James Squire, Executive Secretary of the NCTE (National Council of Teachers of English) was the chairman of the National Planning Committee for the May 1964 Tucson meeting of TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.

You may want to check an "exasperation boiling point" as indication of the level of bicultural perception in school guidance. For example, can your staff – without exasperation – explain to Spanish speaking Juan's satisfaction that it is important for him to come to school instead of celebrating his godmother's saint's day; to Navajo speaking Kee that he should plan ahead so that – without daily assignments – he will have a term paper ready six weeks later: to Anglo John that his daily conduct of himself – in sympathetic respect for the feelings of others – can be just as important as a good paper submitted for a competitive end-of-term mark?

You may want to check for bicultural "malnutrition" in the learning of English communication skills. For example, how many times a day does the culturally different student speak in class? Rule as zero both those saying nothing and those saying much – but all of it irrelevant! Do your schools solve the problem by quiet classrooms alternating with noisy corridors; by attractive signs reading "Speak only English"? If one were to speculate arithmetically about the amount of technically taught, individualized, supervised, oral English practice these schools provide each day, the score might look as follows: class period – 60 minutes; (1) teacher – 20 minutes of oral assignments, explanations, exhortations, questions, answers, and corrections; nerve-quieting silent seat work – 10 minutes; (30) students – 1 minute each of oral practice. Multiply 1 minute by 5 daily academic classes and the total daily maximum is 5 minutes of English standard pattern practice! Question – who is really teaching spoken English to Spanish thinking Juan and Navajo thinking Kee?

Emotional and communication skill handicaps fortunately can be corrected but until they are, they can be as disabling as the much more easily recognized physical handicaps. Do we criticize the partially blind because they cannot see well? the partially deaf because they cannot hear well?

The ratio of 1:3 children of limited background in schools of our great cities is expected to change to 1 in 2 by 1970. (Office of Education OE-30012 Bulletin 1964, No. 5, 75¢) But will teachers also understand the implications of this? Many may! And it is suggested that from them the most creative be informally tapped from all teaching levels for pilot operational research classroom programs. These programs will survive in schools which have similarly creative principals to support the fight for them until results provide the bandwagon necessary for additional bicultural teacher training courses at institutional levels.

Are there enough materials available today to start a program at any level?

Yes. However there is not yet a fully sequential program of materials from nursery school to college. There are materials for adaptation to remedial work, for some levels of sequential programs. It is not necessary to wait in order to achieve better results than with no program.

Should all teachers be instructed to introduce new methods in the initial program?

This is a matter of opinion and local organization. Florida, faced by an avalanche of Cuban refugees, instituted a total program to meet an obvious crisis. Southwestern teachers and students have been conditioned over many years to an acceptance of a less than satisfactory level of performance in communication skills. Strategically placed pilot programs at various levels, handled by capable and enthusiastic teachers, counselors, and administrators can win adherents and lose enemies by satisfactory results. Planning can be long-range with guidance from classroom operational research and gradual professional growth of personnel in this area of specialization.

Some quick suggestions:

Select initial personnel carefully so that you have a balanced team which will not only watch where it is going but where it has been!

Provide maximum opportunity for individual initiative in selection of materials and experiments, but by consensus settle on a solid development of skill with the English sound system and the basic English patterns of communication. Encourage trial of new hypotheses; sometimes what appears a waste of time becomes a valuable tool – and sometimes it doesn't! What is important is to avoid freezing any system until there has been a broader base and more time for evaluation of applications from theory to classroom use in different situations of classroom ethnic heterogeneity and levels of skills.

Don't confine your program to English teachers and guidance counselors; the handbook suggests an inter-disciplinary approach. The significance of color psychology, kinesthetic techniques, music, drama, methodology for the deaf and the blind, psuedo-retardation are only a few of the areas, among many, which can provide new and helpful insights. All students do not respond to the same techniques: for students frustrated for many years, sometimes success with what is believed to be a totally new approach provides self-confidence and unlocks forgotten skills.

Provide active discussion periods across primary, elementary, and secondary lines for pilot program teachers, with coordination but not authoritarianism. Make extra time available for planning, materials preparation, evaluation – and with clerical help to process it!

Provide resource personnel on an intermittent basis as needed and a professional library with the latest books – from pure theory to simple materials, with records and tapes as well as other new and pertinent audio-visual materials. Try to give each teacher one large work table, one tape-recorder for her own use at school and at home, a stock of tapes, and at least one set of earphones. Repair them without comment if they get broken from eager handling and initial ineptness. And so on . . . . (for consultative personnel resources see page 48)

Information on financing and specific programming is proliferating as various agenies are daily becoming more directly concerned with the problem. The difficulty of maintaining a balanced over-view of profitable avenues for administrators to explore is also correspondingly increasing daily!

WHY SHOULD TEACHERS CHANGE THEIR ATTITUDES AND METHODS?

Isn't English the area of greatest handicap for your students? Do you question the traditional English program as having merit for all of your students? Do you notice particular unresponsiveness to particular lessons among culturally different students? Teachers in pioneering programs have become increasingly aware of the need to "put on bifocals" for their bicultural students.

The following bulletin excerpts (E. R. Leighton, ed. 1961) illustrate the thinking of two dedicated teachers – both Workshop consultants and inspirational participants.

According to Mrs. Elizabeth Willink, teaching English as her fifth language to Navajo elementary students:

. . . . A linguist is one who looks at language with a microscope, so to speak, turning it over and over meticulously checking and crosschecking every bit of area, phase, and aspect of the language, describing what he finds, comparing it with other languages or with the same language in another historical period.

. . . . The linguist has found patterns in pitch – in stress, even in meaning. He has found emphasis through pitch and stress or through pitch without stress, in rhythm, in pronunciation and enunciation deviations. He has found patterns in the use of devices to express certain by-meanings.

. . . . The linguist calls this system of patterns "structure." Thus, structure includes grammar, but it is not identical with grammar.

. . . . Just as we are being helped with an orderly development of vocabulary, linguistics must help us with an orderly development of grammatical structure (sentence patterns

and patterns of sentence patterns), phonetics, and phonemes.

Mrs. Grace Blossom studied Spanish as her second language with Dr. H. Tesson, Spanish linguist. With his help she successfully developed audio-lingual materials for teaching English to her intermediate Indian students. She says:

. . . . In working with bilingual children we are apt to feel that teachers are handicapped by not knowing the mother tongue of the student. The teacher, however, is really working under a far greater handicap by not knowing the structure of the language she is trying to teach – in our case – English.

. . . . The teacher learned to speak in early childhood and is completely unconscious of the processes involved. She is unaware of how she makes the various sounds, of how she makes the words stick together into a sentence, and in consequence she does not know where to start teaching English to the student.

Mrs. Blossom's pattern was to use short, useful sentences. New words were limited daily to

5 new words – under age eight
8 new words – older students

The morning greeting usually constitutes the first lesson: (The new words are underlined)

1. GOOD MORNING, JOHN: GOOD MORNING, MISS
2. GOOD MORNING, JOHN. HOW ARE YOU? The next day . . . add
3. HOW ARE YOU? I'M FINE, THANK YOU. The next day . . . add
4. HOW OLD ARE YOU? I'M SIX YEARS OLD. and so on . . .

SEQUENCE OF LEARNING ENGLISH

Order for a First Language

1. Listening

   Baby John listens to sounds around him as well as to his own cooing and babbling. He begins to connect meaning to some patterns of sounds.

2. Production of words and phrases by a sound system

   From the age of two, John begins to converse by using various gestures and vocal intonations combined with key words like "me", and he communicates his thought. He experiments while mother expands and corrects. John comes to school able to hear and pronounce English sounds.

3. Development of a grammatical system

   John may begin to arrange words into patterns as early as two years old. He copies adults and gradually expands what starts as a shorthand kind of sentence. By the age of eight he is already using almost all the basic grammatical forms he will learn.

4. Comprehension of written symbols as linked to speech

   John develops the ability to hear dictation of English and translate it into writing. He learns to translate intonation patterns and interruptions in sound into punctuation. On the other hand, for reading he translates the punctuation into sound patterns for comprehension.

Order for a Second Language

Spanish-speaking Juan's problem

a. John comes to school about half-way through the third level of learning English as a primary tool for communication; Spanish Juan and Navjo Kee lack this same training because their basic learning had taught them to speak and to think in their native languages.

b. The teacher expects Juan and Kee to catch up to John, but without extra assistance for understanding through new listening patterns, new sound patterns, and new basic grammatical patterns.

c. The vocabulary shift usually takes place with the 3-2 readers and through the sixth grade a comprehension or recognition vocabulary is required much larger than the sixth speaking vocabulary . . . . How can Juan and Kee meet these extra new words without the extra help which John need?

d. Usually texts and test materials have vocabulary and idioms primarily based on Anglo-American middleclass values. These John learns informally and formally by emotional precept and correction at home. Juan may learn quite different values at home and misinterpret meaning. For example, Kee may not choose the correct answer of "rabbit" as a pet from a multiple choice because to him rabbits are either pests or food. Can the teacher explain these concepts without spending extra time not required by John?

HOW CAN JUAN AND KEE BE HELPED?

1. As Mrs. Grace Blossom said at the first workshop, "Overlearn conversations and dialogue for smooth progress."
2. As the Fries-Rojas (Fries 1953) materials do for each unit, listen and speak; then read and write the same materials in that order.
3. As Dr. Pauline Rojas reemphasized at the third workshop, keep your vocabulary constant. While you are teaching vocabulary, use a constant structural pattern.
4. Vocabulary should be extended and structure should bemastered. However, for the second language learner, whose competence in English is lagging, we are being advised to teach to these goals alternately rather than simultaneously.

Note: Following workshop discussion on this point, Mrs. Streiff selected "Teen-Age Tales" with its typical teenage dialogue, and with the help of her husband and children, she taped the story, leaving time lapses for the students to repeat the text. The students read silently, while listening for intonation and comprehension; they then read aloud the same text. This appeared to improve both speech and reading comprehension.

The Harvard Educational Review's special issue – "Language and Language learning" – Volume 34, No. 2, Spring 1964, provides theoretical research findings confirming workshop speculations as well as implications for further classroom application.

The section "Language Acquisition; Bilingualism, and Language Change" in Psycholinguistic Readings (Saparta 1961 ed.) appears to support this concept. The book is a valuable general reference for linguistic research. The 1962 workshop bulletin has several pages of specific sound problems. (26 Spanish language patterns causing problems in English; Ed 296s, pp. 70-71; sound substitutions pp. 72-75; Diagnostic word test p. 76; Navajo trouble spots pp. 77-80)

BICULTURAL GUIDANCE

As a teacher, do you work with your guidance counselor to teach cultural values in your classroom? If you do, what cultural values are you teaching? How are you teaching them? Are you using all three levels of learning behavior (Hall 1957)?

Informally . . by observation?
Formally . . . by emotional precept and correction?
Technically . by objective description?

For example, how does the boy who hangs around street corners of a metropolitan eastern city learn to make judgments about his own worth as a future citizen? Doesn't this self-acceptance as an individual of less worth than members of other ethnic groups come from observing (informally) that the persons in his school and neighborhood with authority are not often from his own ethnic group? (Whyte 1955) Language differences only serve to accentuate his feeling of personal inferiority.

Why does this culturally different boy go eagerly to shop and physical education classes to build his ego – but try to avoid English classes, even those set-up to help him overcome obvious language handicaps perceived by his teachers? Is it because this student believes that trying to learn formal class patterns of English, quite different from many he has already learned informally at home, will usually bring him criticism – seldom bring him praise? (Lloyd 1964)

So – to help culturally different students to acquire skills and understanding for problem solving affected by two cultures – we wear "cultural bi-focals"!

When the counselor dons "cultural bi-focals" what does he see which before was obscure? At first he will be disappointed until he learns to look at himself and his students with this different perspective. Bicultural guidance is a new area of counseling specialization and implications must be drawn primarily from data of the behavioral sciences which are only suggestive for school use. At this stage of development, however, there are several insights which – combined with our experience – should provide assistance in understanding and helping culturally different students.

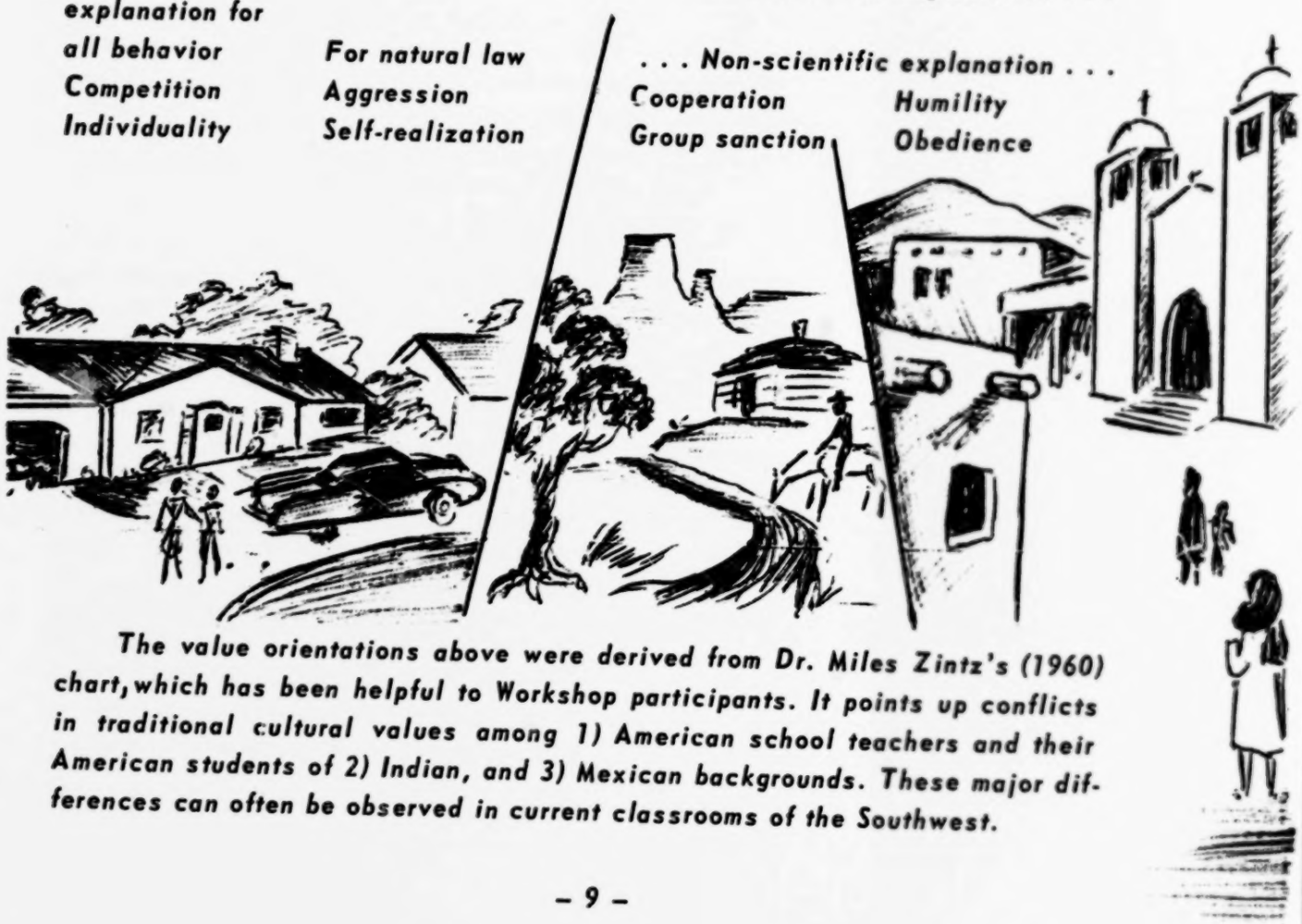
In a handbook of this type, even these few insights can only be sketched in the most general terms. For example, there appear to be distinct differences among ethnic groups in students' reactions to the American school program. Southwestern Mexican or Spanish-American students of the second or third generation, living in an area with many ethnic cultural and family ties, appear to have different sets of values from other students living in the same larger community – those educated through the primary grades in Mexico, Southwestern Indians, negros, and Anglo Americans.

Although it is obvious that awareness of cultural patterns of behavior is essential for learning to understand the problems of the individual student, if these are applied without sympathetic appraisal of the students' particular situation and his value orientations, patterns can be misleading. Let us see how this bi-focal perception develops. First, instead of universal agreement or judgments of right or wrong behavior, the counselor becomes aware of broad differences in the cultural patterns of value orientations: time, space, nature, activity, and personal relationships (F. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck 1961) as well as ethical values such as altruism, coercion, will – all causing various individual judgments of behavior as right or wrong. (Ladd 1957) Many values held by culturally different students are opposed to those held by the counselor and the majority – if not all – of the faculty.

Next, the counselor may suddenly become aware that the concept he has of the student's motivation may be quite different from the student's (Jewett et al., 1964). Further, he may discover that the student's concept of the counselor's motivation may also be quite different from his own. An example serves to illustrate this point. A Navajo college student dropped out of college because her instructor accused her of not being really interested in the course; of not working hard enough; of not taking notes in class. The student had seen little use in taking notes in class; the textbook carried the lecture material. The student's reaction was to blame the instructor for not liking her. However, she did not go to the instructor and explain this. She explained to the editor, "I knew the teacher was beyond understanding so there was no use in going to see her." After a minute's reflection, she added wistfully, "I can see now that she was only trying to help me, but then I didn't see it!"

DIFFERENCES IN CULTURAL VALUES

Value Orientations	Anglo-American Teacher	Southwestern Indians	Spanish-Mexican Americans
Nature	Mastery	Harmony	Subjugation
Time	Future	. . . Present . . .	
Aspiration	Success	Follow old ways	Work a little – Rest a little
Work	Hard	. . . To satisfy present needs . . .	
Saving	Everyone should	. . . . . Sharing instead	
Schedules	Clock watchers	. . . . . Unhurried	
Change	Accepted as modal behavior	. . . . . Follow old ways	
Scientific explanation for all behavior	For natural law	. . . Non-scientific explanation . . .	
Competition	Aggression	. . . Non-scientific explanation . . .	
Individuality	Self-realization	Cooperation	Humility
		Group sanction	Obedience



The value orientations above were derived from Dr. Miles Zintz's (1960) chart, which has been helpful to Workshop participants. It points up conflicts in traditional cultural values among 1) American school teachers and their American students of 2) Indian, and 3) Mexican backgrounds. These major differences can often be observed in current classrooms of the Southwest.

Third, the counselor may perceive a student's irritating withdrawal – expressed through shyness, sullenness, or downright hostility – as a mask to hide insecurity, perhaps real fear. Among many culturally different students there appears to be a hopelessness based upon a deep-seated sense of inferiority from competition with Anglo students. This may have begun early – through informal and formal learning experiences at home – and have been confirmed by school experience. For example, in a junior high school pilot program for Mexican-American students in communication arts, a student was progressing with this kind of encouragement from being considered a behavior problem to that of a self-respecting school citizen. He overheard casual comment of one faculty member to another, "Oh, that kid, I had him in class once. He's like the others – never will amount to anything." It took many weeks to regain the ground lost by that one thoughtless remark.

There are often different reasons underlying the same observable value orientations shared by Spanish and Indian speaking students. There are also various responses to influences from the process of acculturation (from the culture contacts between the minority and the dominant Anglo-American value orientations) reflected among individuals in their responses to specific problems.

In a conversation (August 1964) with the editor, Dr. Jerome Leavitt of Oregon State University recalled his own experience with Harlem students, "They thought the teacher's language was used only in school and of no value for ordinary living!" Similarly, from informal learning, a Mexican-American sixth grader who had a reputation for "goofing off" admitted wistfully to the editor that he guessed he would work hard in an English remedial program because – "Then I could explain what happens when I get in trouble!"

In your school do the administrators, the teachers, and the counselors all work together to teach cultural values? If so, is this done in the classroom, by a group, or by an individual counseling session? Is there a general agreement on the cultural values which are discussed? Are they only those of the dominant Anglo culture? Are discussions of conflicts between cultural values related to school problems?

Teaching values is not something to tackle lightly. Some values are so deeply held that they may not be recognized by either teacher or student as influencing a choice in behavior, or may be disturbing because of emotional connotations. However, if we approach bicultural students with some perception of their needs for an explanation of differences between their ideas of right and wrong and those of the faculty, the very effort to help the culturally different student may change a negative attitude into a positive one. The following two pages present a classroom approach which has been effective even without professional counseling techniques of bicultural guidance.

TAKING THE STUDENT INTO YOUR CONFIDENCE

Your students may be culturally different or culturally deprived, or both. The standard school program hardly applies to their needs in either case because they usually do not have the necessary experiential background or English fluency. The standard program often means failure for the student and a growing conviction of being culturally sub-standard. This breeds either defeatism or belligerence. The following method has been used by Workshop staff members. Mrs. Arline Hobson describes below her classroom approach:

Without bringing judgments into play as to what is good or bad or superior or inferior, the child is made to realize that there is a dominant American cultural pattern although many cultures exist within the country's boundaries. The teacher points out that certain patterns of behavior and speech can hinder economic or social acceptance within the dominant group. If the teacher directly states that a student's English has a foreign sound that might hinder his getting a good job, the student often takes a second look at his English. Usually, realistic about dollars-and-cents values, these students appreciate a down-to-earth explanation for the teacher's interest in suggesting he change some of his patterns. If there is not a true values-conflict – and often there is not – the student will usually bend to the cultural demand and laugh about it at the same time.

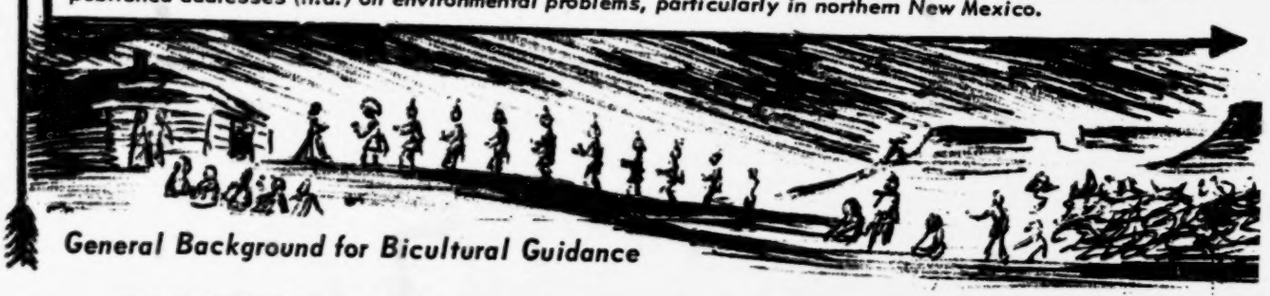
When the child is thus taken into the teacher's confidence, he can consciously accept or reject the demands of both cultures without becoming immobilized by unconscious conflict. The teacher who does not exhort an uncooperative student to adopt the new ways is wise. If the student is negative, and this is only seldom, in the general discussion he has had to define that to which he is negative. By this single understanding he has learned a great deal which can be mentally tapped should some experience or necessity force him to change attitudes. A child can learn that there is "front-door" English, "back-door" English, and "gutter" English. Each English serves a different purpose. If such an awareness is planted in the student's mind, he knows what to do if he suddenly finds "front-door" English meets his needs.

If the children are mostly from relief homes, the difference between a relief home and a home supported by a job can be discussed. This should not be evaded but should be faced. If the student knows that your purpose is to help him to escape the limitations of relief for the better life which a job and wages can make available to him, he'll begin to be more thoughful himself about his own purposes.

This complete candor in letting the child know your purposes need not involve any embarrassment or hostility. A teacher's empathy is vital, of course, but how is this to be acquired? Perhaps, the best way is a conscious and deliberate disciplining of self to withhold value judgments in favor of realistic analysis with the student of the best way he can learn enough about the dominant culture and language to bring him economic success. It would be hoped that the teacher would help the student to see that there is little need for value judgments on his part either. One culture is good for one situation and the dominant culture is good in another situation, but pragmatic interests necessitate a choice at times. Ideally, both teacher and student will grow into biculturalism.

Almost all teachers help students develop objectives for given units of study; often these are posted on a bulletin board. If you candidly verbalize your latent social goals for your students and post them too, you may be surprised at the students' focus on purposes.

Unfortunately there is no guidance textbook – known to the editor – which is directly concerned with bicultural guidance. A text which emphasizes close cooperation between teachers and guidance counselors in the elementary schools appears to have recognized problems caused by individual differences among students and might provide a useful frame of reference for bicultural insights (Garry 1963). For High School students, evaluation of potentials: for vocational planning has become a primary concern. Handicaps for bicultural students are discussed under testing. The guidance issue (1962) of the Harvard Educational Review has articles suggestive of trends potentially useful for bicultural counseling, as this specialized focus develops. Of these, a guided discussion of morals – an "examined life" concept (Shoben 1962) and a theoretical construct – centered on "ego counseling" – (Hammil 1962) appear particularly significant. The Office of Education Bulletin (Jewitt, et. al.) offers many useful insights to teachers and to counselors since it is specifically directed to the culturally different student – only Houston represents the Southwest. Dr. Clark Knowlton, Head of the Sociology Department of Texas Western University has several unpublished addresses (n.d.) on environmental problems, particularly in northern New Mexico.



General Background for Bicultural Guidance

FOR SOUTHWESTERN INDIAN STUDENTS: Counseling for conflicts in value orientations, (Zintz and Morris 1962; E. Roby Leighton 1964; Historical and cultural perspective – Spicer 1962; Fey and McNickle 1959; Navajo (Education) – Zintz 1960; Condie 1958; (Home environment) – Green 1962; Reichard 1939; Apache (Education) – Marinsek 1960; Pueblo (Education) – Marinsek 1958; General research – Bernardoni, ed. 1960 to 1963; McGrath, et al., 1962; Thompson, ed. issue 406, Sept. 15, 1964; MEXICAN HERITAGE: Community organization – Redfield 1960; Culture of poverty – Lewis 1959; Mexican stereotype in literature – Robinson 1963; Historical and cultural perspective – Wolf, Eric; Education – Mexican – A segregated community (Los Angeles) Hughes 1951; Puerto-Rican Study 1953-57, (Board of Education, N.Y.); Migrant workers and pre-school state programs – Colorado 1964-62-61; California 1962; Texas (Kennedy 1962); NEGRO: Dollard 1947; Lomax 1962; Berger 1964; CULTURAL CHANGE: Spicer, ed. 1961, 1952; Ashton-Warner 1963; Mead 1956; Riesman 1954; VALUE ORIENTATIONS: C. Kluckhohn 1962; Benedict 1934; Lerner, ed. 1959; Bernard 1961; Ladd 1957; SYMBOLIC LANGUAGE Saporta 1961; Fromm 1951; Harper 1959; METROPOLITAN PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION: Jewett et al. 1964; Conant1961;

INTONATION – THE ENGLISH TUNE

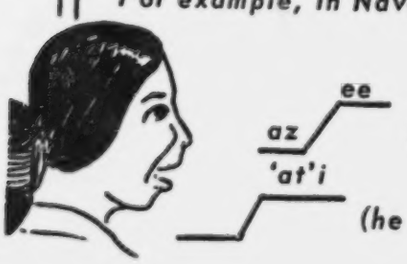
Are you aware of the "tune" and how it is composed and "sung" in English speech? Every language has its own characteristic melody. The tune of one language offers resistance to the learning of another language. Of course there are similarities between languages, but recognition of the intonation contrasts. between the native tongue and the second language, can help both student and teacher.

Unless English intonation is mastered, the student's speech has a foreign sound even though he may have mastered the vocabulary and grammar (or structure). Lloyd and Warfel (1956) is a standard reference. Or a teacher could take Prater's Manual of American English Pronunciation (1957) and by carefully following the lessons in the book, modify them to meet the needs of a particular grade level for an awareness of intonation while strengthening her own knowledge.

Marjorie and Paul Streiff presented to the November 1962 Arizona Bilingual Council meeting a lecture teachers found very helpful. They analyzed intonation by contrasting Spanish and English intonation – pitch, stress, and juncture. The following discussion includes several of their examples used both at Workshops and in their classes.

PITCH

Pitch refers to the rise and fall of voice in an utterance. It often carries emotional overtones that could be misunderstood by a second language learner especially if he hears it with reference to the pitch system of his own language. Or perhaps he is unable to hear it at all. Did you know that a Navajo has difficulty hearing or uttering the pitch involved in an English sentence just as an Anglo has difficulty with Navajo pitch? The Navajo speaks a tonal language which uses only two levels of pitch – a change of pitch in a syllable within a word can change the meaning of a word or cause it to have no meaning at all. For example, in Navajo (Young 1960-61)



az ee — (mouth) opposed to . . . . azee (medicine)

'at'i — (he does, he did it) opposed to 'at i (he is rich)

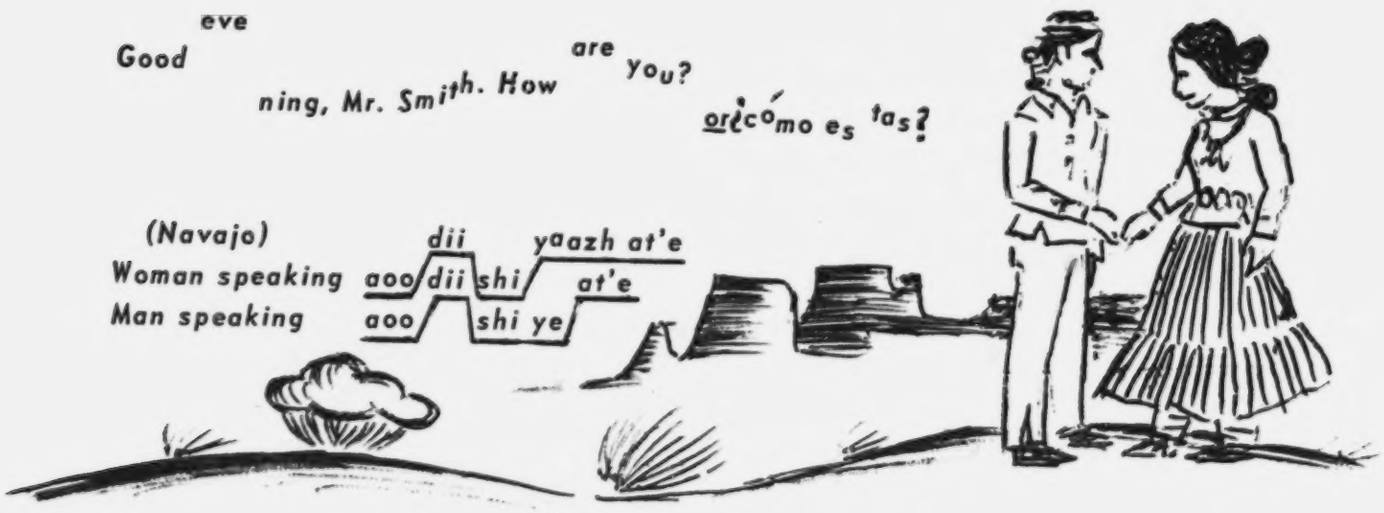
Compare this with a pattern used successfully with workshop practicum students. This can be accompanied by raising and lowering the hands to illustrate pitch.

1. You're hungry, aren't you? – (requires an answer)
2. 2. " " " " ? – (Does NOT require an answer)
3. Shall we paint it red, purple, or green?

An even more exact visual aid (Bolinger 1964) is:

eve
Good ning, Mr. Smith. How are you?
¿cómo estás?

(Navajo) dii yaazh at'e
Woman speaking aoo dii shi at'e
Man speaking aoo shi ye



ANOTHER WAY TO LOOK AT PITCH

1. There are four distinctive levels (voice rise and fall) of pitch in English.

4.
3.
2.
1.

2. There are three levels of pitch in Spanish.

3.
2.
1.

3. Contrasts in matter of fact statements.

4.
3.
2.
1.

The man is coming.

3.
2.
1.

El hombre viene.

Stress is so influential in sentence meaning that it can actually reverse lexical meaning. For example, your students will be "tickled" by the detection of these reversals in meaning:

1. *You're a fine fellow.*
2. *You're a fine fellow?*

JUNCTURE

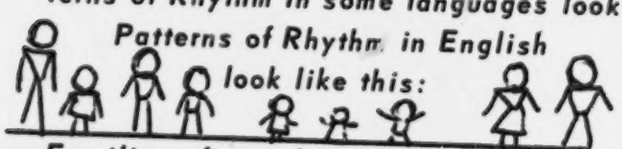
The breaks or cuts before or after syllables in utterances contribute greatly to our sentence rhythm and serve to confuse sentence meaning for bilingual students. Punctuation in written English reflects the more obvious juncture patterns and many English teachers today use this knowledge to train students in a feeling for punctuation.

Jokes provide an easy technique for a teacher to sensitize the student to the importance of the correct use of juncture. Try getting your students to differentiate between the following, and laugh with them as they learn a fundamental aspect of the system of language.

1. *What's on the road ahead?*
   What's on the road? A head?
2. *Did you ever see a cigar box?*
   Did you ever see a cigar BOX?

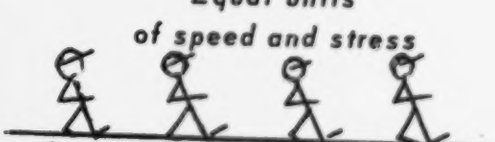
RHYTHM

Language rhythm is a matter of stress and speed. Often what we call "foreign accent" is really only an inability to use English rhythm patterns. Patterns of Rhythm in some languages look like this:



Families of speed and stress

Patterns of Rhythm in English look like this:



Equal units of speed and stress

Stress and speed in English do not depend so much upon how we group words together as they do upon how we group syllables together. In conversation we may pronounce a phrase as one word. A Papago student asks "What's an itsa?" The pattern introducing such sentences as "It's a book, It's a doll" is clear to us but not to him.

A workshop exercise illustrates change in meaning from a change in stress through still another technique – a basic sentence which can be expanded by either more questions or new subjects.

1. *What did you put away? I put my black coat away.*
2. *Where did you put your black coat? I put my black coat away.*
3. *Did your sister put your black coat away? No, I put my black coat away.*

The pattern of English stress (or accent) within a word must be taught to the Spanish speaker.

In English: tendency to shorten and pronounce all unstressed vowels as "u (h)" (ə) – in the – or as "i (h)" (ɪ) – in Sunday, Monday, etc.

In Spanish: All vowels, regardless of stress, remain approximately equal in length and loudness and don't lose quality. There will be only one strong stress in any group of words uttered rapidly together.

To the English ear: Spanish has a staccato or "machine-gun" rhythm.

To the Spanish ear: 1, 2, 3, (all but the weak) stresses all sound strong.

Note: Navajo students (whose language has many similarities to other southwestern Indian tongues) must learn new patterns of pitch, stress, and juncture with even greater variations than between English and Spanish. For example, they distinguish meaning from four basic vowel phonemes, but distinguish between short and long by doubling, between nasalization or absence of it, and tone (high, low, rising, and falling). Navajo and English are markedly different in their sound systems, extremely so in word and sentence structure.

GRAMMAR

An English teacher is always confronting unexpected situations and having to improvise, particularly when teaching a biligual student. Language competence is not determined by measuring a body of facts, but by mastery of complicated skills. Dr. J. J. Lamberts (1962) has suggested that uttering a ten-word sentence can use as many muscles and neural reflexes as does eight hours of chopping wood. Only after learning fundamental facts of English as an independent discipline can the teacher apply them for programming structures like questions and statements, or elaborations of modification and predication. By this programming the second language learner can understand and practice the patterns until they are mastered!

In 1963, Miss Iris Mulvaney repeated her 1962 demonstration of how grammar works (Ed. 296s, 1962, pp. 67-69) to workshop participants. First, she posted an alphabetical list of basic words "fight-man-old-plan-war-young." Provided with word endings, past tenses, and plural forms made of construction paper she sequentially illustrated the importance of structure in teaching English grammar (Lloyd and Warfel, 1956; Roberts, 1962, 1956).

Simple word order: 1. *man (actor) plan (action) war (goal)*
2. *man (actor) fight (action) war (goal)*

Modification of: *old man plan war young man fight war*

Signals of word forms: *old men (number) planned (tense) war young men (number) fought (tense) war*

Signals of structure words: *The (definiteness) old men planned the war but the (definiteness) young men fought it. (definiteness)*

Signals of intonation – word groups: *(beginning) The old men planned the war, (relationship) but the young men fought it. (end of utterance)*

Linguistic meaning comes from the completed utterance resulting from two other meanings; these are lexical (semantic intelligence – attached to words) and structural (symbolic intelligence – derived from word order, forms, structure words, and intonation).

Concepts of this sort are causing scholars like Dr. John Laird (1953) to describe traditionally based Latin grammar as "leaky" because there are so many exceptions of rules for analysis of English structure. This has led workshop participants (among many teachers) to try a "new open class form look" at constantly changing nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Relatively static (closed class form) structure words are explained to second language learners as having no meaning in themselves but as being useful for understanding the total utterance.

Patterns in language can be understood by students who have had pointed out to them that much of their own behavior also follows patterns. They follow patterns to cook; to sew; to clean house; to build furniture; to swim; to dance; to sing a song; to recite in class; to address their elders, bosses, relatives, and friends; to explain themselves to teachers, policemen, and to judges; to live through a school-day as well as a holiday or Sunday – the list is almost endless.

Are these daily behavior patterns learned by rules which students write down and memorize? Are students then tested on their learning by pen and paper multiple choice tests with only the answer considered correct by the teacher acceptable? Not very often! How many of these patterns are learned informally from personal observation outside as well as inside classrooms? How many English patterns are learned inside classrooms first by experience with a correct model provided by other students or by the teacher? Is this followed by friendly urging to practice the model, without criticism, but with praise for each small improvement in approximating it? Parents speaking standard American English provide this kind of encouragement over and over again so that their children already speak and think in acceptable basic patterns by the time they go to school. And even so, these children spend twelve years in school memorizing the rules – sometimes not too well!

What happens to the culturally different student whose ear often has been trained by quite different models of language sound and meaning in his home environment? These models may be of another language (Dozier 1962 and a Ed 296s, pp. 14, 15; Clemons 1962; Streiff 1963; Estrada 1963) they may be sub-standard English models; they may be sub-standard English and sub-standard native language models. If the student doesn't understand the examples used by the teacher as being utterances used by ordinary people with whom he associates, why should he bother with the rules describing them?

Obviously manipulation is required to teach the systematic patterns of English developed by descriptive linguists – to whom in recent years teachers owe so much important knowledge about the structure of English (Fries 1952; Lado and Fries 1956). Dr. J. P. Guilford (1959) suggests using the factor theory of intellect as a cue to teaching toward general as well as specific factor goals. This means exercises of skills in divergent thinking (several possible answers) and transformation (adaptation of basic pattern to different situations) as a balance to skills in convergent thinking (one right answer) and critical evaluation (correctness, adequacy, and suitability of decision based on given information).

A lecture by Dr. Robert Lado (UCLA NDEA English SL Institute 1964) suggests a manipulation-communication scale for teaching advanced second-language learners. This appears to be in accord with Dr. Guilford's suggestion.

As reported by Mr. and Mrs. Paul Streiff, this means moving from single slot substitutions provided by the teacher ("That man is a farmer") to a student's creative choice from his own communication need. Substitution of a picture cue would provide limited creativity in a more manipulated situation. Picture cues of all types have been used by workshop participants. Paraphrasing, sentence completions, reading aloud without a teacher's model; repeated answers from the book, answers suggested by the book, creative responses; complete dictation, several incomplete sentences, related subject composition assignments, and finally completely creative compositions – all three are examples of moving away from manipulation.

In pilot programs of Tucson District No. 1, stories have been left incomplete and students have provided creative endings. These have been taped.

Dr. Lado has suggested that manipulative skills necessary for teaching English as a second language would gradually become unnecessary. He suggests however that composition teachers might include a solid element of manipulative skills in early literature courses.

IDIOMS AND IDIOMATIC USAGE

The basal readers rapidly increase in idiomatic content beginning at the third grade level. Such language is often grammatically inconsistent or illogical in meaning. The teacher needs to fully comprehend the meaning of the idiom and the situation in which it can be appropriately used. This is especially the case for teaching children of non-English backgrounds in which the idiom has no counterpart.

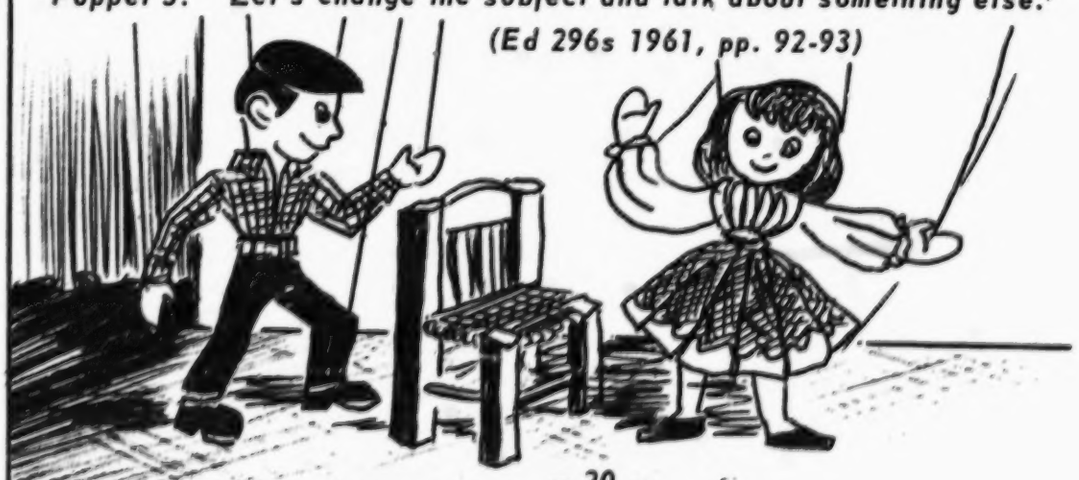
The teacher must be aware of the idiom, able to explain it, and disciplined in his own use of the idiom with the children. The children learning English as a second language must understand idioms, incorporate many of them into their speech if they are to be really fluent in English. Thought should be given to a sequence of idiom patterns to be taught for common conversational usage. An excerpt from the first workshop bulletin is given below to show how Mr. Jack Schwanke's puppets illustrated idioms in a play produced by practicum students – written by Mrs. Arline Hobson.

Puppet 1: Now, my tale I'll share,
of lightning that struck so close to my chair
that I was only saved by a hair.

Puppet 2: What do you mean? Do you mean to say that only a hair,
a little tiny strand of your hair,
coming between the lightning and chair,
can actually save your life?
Oh, that's rare!

Puppet 3: Let's change the subject and talk about something else.

(Ed 296s 1961, pp. 92-93)



Another approach is to develop a list of English idioms with equivalents in the student's language. Participants of the first workshop listed 156 idioms of general interest – from primary to adult levels. They matched them in Spanish, then taped for listening comprehension by individuals or groups. A second tape was made with only Spanish idioms – a third tape recorded only English. Particularly at the more advanced levels it was thought that the students learning Spanish could help students learning English. (From Bulletin Ed 296s, 1961 pp. 77-84)

Excerpts from list: From a third grade reader

English	Spanish
1. He's a stuck up fellow	1. Es un tipo orgulloso
2. Quick as a wink	2. Como un relampago
From a sixth grade reader	
1. Nonsense	1. ¡Que disparate!
2. He was tongue tied	2. Estaba con la lengua atada
(Idioms generally useful for all ages)	
It's a deal	Trato hecho
In a pickle	En un aprieto
On everybody's tongue	De boca en boca

A taped (written also) explanation in Spanish can save many words and gestures, particularly if the teacher knows little or no Spanish. (Dixon 1957) is a useful paperback source for idioms. The workshop attempt to match Navajo and Papago Indian idioms was abandoned because of difficulty in finding counterparts.

Mrs. Betty Frey developed her students' interest in idioms by asking them to bring in those their parents remembered having used. Family communication between generations was promoted by this popular assignment. All workshop participants agree that it is very important to explain taken-for-granted Idioms!

A Gallup-McKinley county, New Mexican teacher in the sixth grade (Yandell & Zintz) compiled a multiple choice test from the elementary school readers. This was used with workshop practicum students and found helpful for locating misconceptions. An idiom sample test question is given below.

22. "When I give a dog, I give him for good."
   a. I treat him good.
   b. give him for keeps.
   c. a good way to give him.
   d. give him to stay awhile.

SOME SPECULATIONS ABOUT THE ROLE OF CREATIVITY IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE UNITED STATES AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

In 1960, Dr. Melvin J. Rhodes introduced a summer course in creativity on the Tucson campus of the University of Arizona. This course became so popular with teachers that, by 1964, two sections were taught by Dr. Rhodes and Dr. Marie M. Hughes. Training through such courses has been directed to perception of theoretical patterns in intellectual and behavioral differences among all individuals, as well as possible methods for fostering personal creativity (Anderson ed., 1959). Among these concepts are differing traits of the intellect; aptitudes for creative thinking and methods for its encouragement; degrees of aptitude for and application of social intelligence, or empathy – all being particularly important for teachers of culturally different students.

Even the possibility of cultural differences in the way a student exercises intelligence suggests that the relatively simple device of translating an English language test into the native tongue may not be completely satisfactory for evaluation of abilities. Correspondingly, some Anglo-American methodology for classroom learning may lose in effectiveness by direct transfer to teaching of culturally different students. Many students achieve self-direction early through informal home training which creatively oriented teachers foster and reinforce in their classrooms. The kind of self-direction learned in home environments of culturally different students may be so different from the classroom patterns, designed to re-inforce it, that the opposite result occurs. Learning may become a hit or miss effort to avoid failure by grasping at responses dimly perceived as acceptable to the teacher.

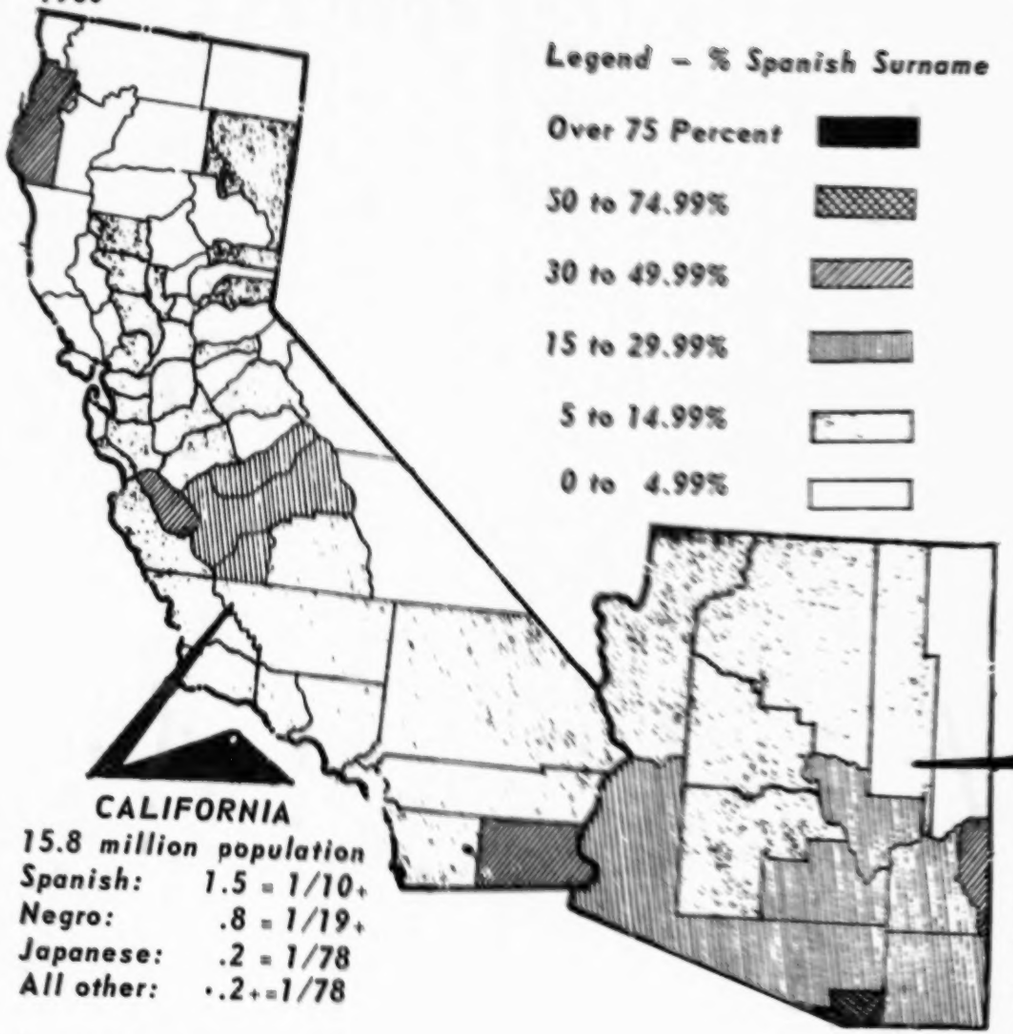
The editor observed the dramatic result from a reportedly poor teacher's "wedding" of manipulative TESL audio-lingual techniques to creative interpretation of meaning through individual involvement of Navajo beginners. The transformation of this teacher to one rated as good did not produce the same optimum results as those observed in the classroom of an experienced, excellent and creative teacher even before utilization of these materials, but the pride and enthusiasm of teachers and students in their respective achievements was the same.

The following factors appeared to be important in both of the above instances: 1) Principals and supervisors encouraged classroom experimentation by praise and removed fear of recrimination from possible failure in terms of ordinary evaluation. 2) All requirements were subordinated to the final objective of a self-confident use of English to satisfy communication needs of students. 3) Orientation was provided in the principles and methods of TESL. 4) A plentiful supply of toys and pictures were available to illustrate meaning by enjoyable activity within a manipulated drill situation as well as by supplemental, unrestricted play. 5) Basic audio-lingual teaching materials were provided with clear teaching directions and suggested sequential development. Flexibility to meet specific needs was encouraged, as long as the basic patterns were mastered. 6) Conscious use of empathy permitted the teacher to transform her own perceived needs for security in daily teaching progress to the similar needs of her students in their daily learning progress. 7) A cultural pattern of memorizing how to do things by observation, listening, and oral repetitive urging, rather than by incessant questioning – "Why do you do that Mommy? Why can't I? Why?" – built self-confidence by pleasurable repetition as a form of security in a classroom pregnant with possible dangers from the unfamiliar. 8) By the nature of being a experimental program, many visitors provided students with practice in communication with strangers. This built self-confidence and also gave importance in the eyes of students to the newly acquired skills of using English.

The same factors have appeared to apply in individually creative classroom experiments being conducted successfully by workshop participants. Three, because of their variant features, are briefly sketched below.

- *Mrs. Stella Mickelson teaches the few non-English speakers from Mexico along with her third grade if they are able to read and write in Spanish. She uses tapes, explains lessons in Spanish, and uses many library books for class social studies. Last year (afterone year) her sixth grade student passed school tests for entrance to the junior high school, had no trace of accent, enjoyed her school year. An unexpected result was sixth grade rating in social studies and language by some of her third grade English speaking classmates who wanted to try the test with her!*
- *Mrs. Lucille Hand (Resource Teacher) and Mrs.. Harriet Schaeffer are part of a team of five who are evaluating in this area, for Dr. Pauline Rojas,, the series of primary readers developed by the Dade County, Florida, Ford Foundation Project. These readers use animals for subject matter, employ toys and other devices for interest development, use the linguistic alphabetic principle for textual patterning of sentences.*
- *Mrs. Lillian McCarty arranged to teach Spanish-speaking students in her school, regardless of their ages, in a voluntary half-hour period after school. One family decided not to leave the area even for a better income because of this.*

The Concentration of Spanish Surname In The Five Southwestern States, by County, 1960



Legend – % Spanish Surname

- Over 75 Percent
- 50 to 74.99%
- 30 to 49.99%
- 15 to 29.99%
- 5 to 14.99%
- 0 to 4.99%

CALIFORNIA
15.8 million population

Spanish:	1.5 = 1/10+
Negro:	.8 = 1/19+
Japanese:	.2 = 1/78
All other:	·.2+=1/78

Total Ethnic 2.7 = 1/6-

TOTALS (in millions) OF THE ETHNIC MINORITIES OF THE FIVE SOUTHWESTERN STATES

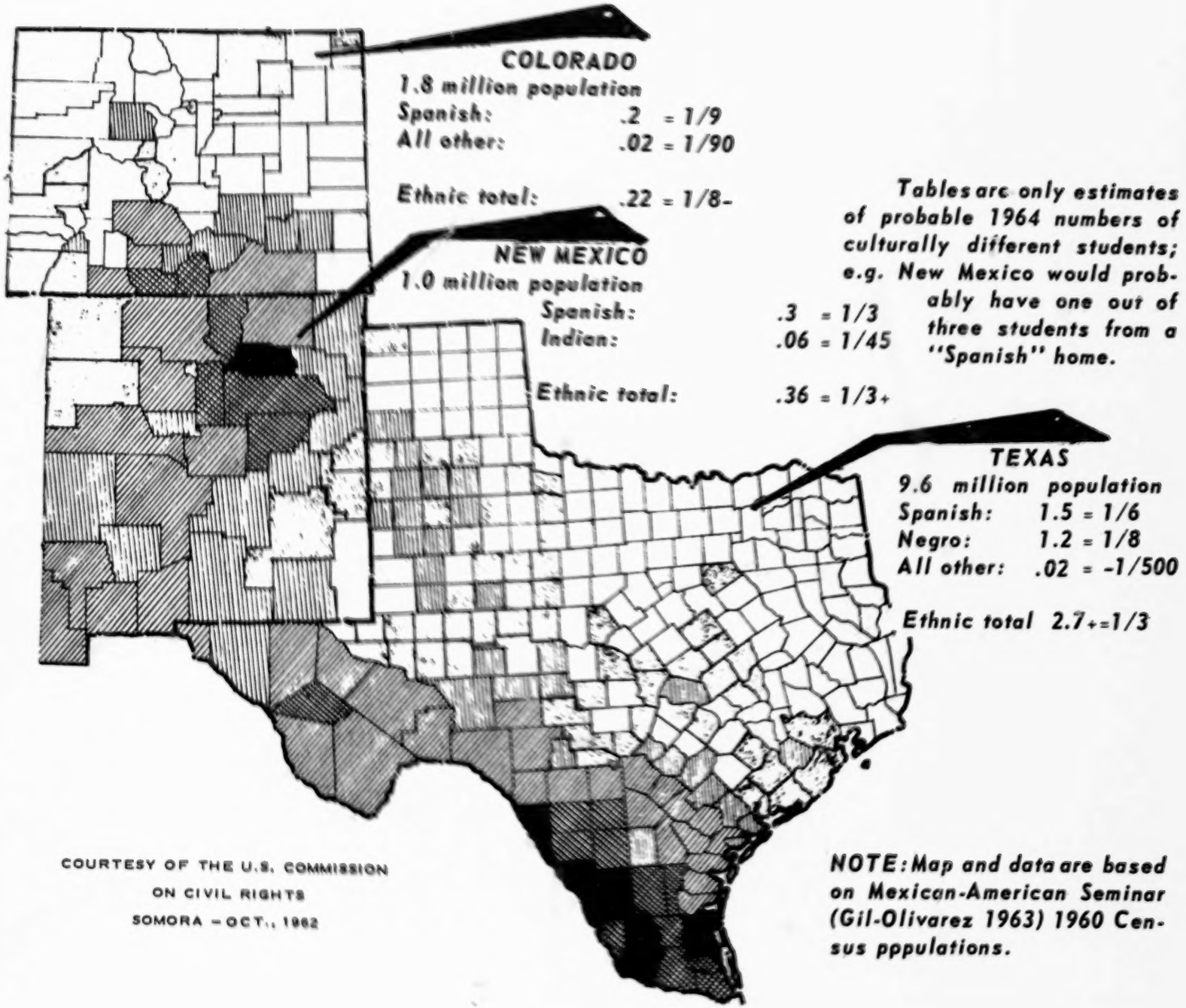
Spanish:	3.5
Negro:	2.3
Japanese:	.27
Indian:	.18
Chinese:	.10
Filipino:	.07
Other ethnic minorities:	.02
Total:	6.44 mil.

OVER-ALL POPULATION
Between 29-30 mil.

Arizona's population is in the 1,300,000 range: probably one out of six school students are from the 200,000 estimated persons with Spanish surnames.

ARIZONA
1.3 million population

Spanish:	.2 = 1/6
Indian:	.09 = 1/14
All other:	.06 = 1/22
Ethnic total:	.35 = 1/4-



Tables are only estimates of probable 1964 numbers of culturally different students; e.g. New Mexico would probably have one out of three students from a "Spanish" home.

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SOMORA – OCT., 1962

NOTE: Map and data are based on Mexican-American Seminar (Gil-Olivarez 1963) 1960 Census pppulations.

ENRICHMENT ACTIVITIES

Each workshop ended with a demonstration in a university auditorium. Practicum students worked on enrichment materials which could be presented to an audience and derived much satisfaction from what was, in effect, linguistic drill. Mrs. Arline Hobson developed the basic program and wrote the materials, excerpts of which are shown below. (Ed 296s pp. 88-93) Mrs. Frey set to music a refrain from a classic in Spanish verse, and Mr. Abundio Elias taught "El Saxafon". Both were much enjoyed by students and audience. (p. 94)

Bilingual children may need materials using "i, th, sh, ch" sounds and the ending "t, d, ed," sounds. (Discussion on pp. 85-87) First let us look at Choral Responsive Reading!

1) Do you speak English?
2) Yes, we do. We speak English and Spanish too. Don't you speak Spanish?

1) Some of us do. Do you speak English the American way, or do you speak English some other way?
2) What do you mean? What do you mean? What do you mean?
(pp. 88-9)

* * * * *

For Indian children a Rain Song of the Rio Grande (pp. 89-90) Pueblos was accompanied by brave drummers.

People of the Dark Clouds,
Come, come, come, come.

Level lying Clouds of the straight stretched mesa,
Moving to and fro, to make the earth more fruitful,
Pour down, pour down!
Rain, rain, rain!

Editorial Comment: And rain it did – in buckets! Perhaps the Sioux Rain Chant made the other stronger.

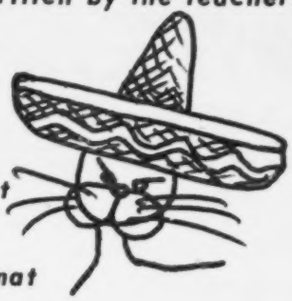
Mid the lightning's flashing,
Comes the rain. Comes the rain.
Comes the rain with me.

Primary children took turns wearing the coyote helmet and "wandering around" as the group responded to each statement with the first line or echoed each line. From the Navajo Creation Chants – The Silly Coyote

I am the silly coyote; I wander around.
I have seen the Black God's fire; I wander around.
I stole his fire from him; I wander around.
I have it! I have it!

Other skills, such as nonsense verse to teach "th, sh, ch" sounds, and verses teaching vowel sounds in English by introducing words in Spanish, can be written by the teacher:

Thith thrilly ish cha chever chich,
Whug dram und thruggle la thum . .



and A a
Un sombrero is a hat
Un gato is a cat
The cat sat on the mat
Then the cat put on the hat!
Now, what do you think of that!! (written for Sahuarita School, 1964)

THE PRINCIPLE? *Shift focus to the group in choral reading, to puppets, to pretend characters in drama . . . A Spanish-American (Clark 1961) story adapted by Mr. J. Schwanke was acted by practicum students before an audience of about 300 adults. Play is 20 minutes, 7 page script, 4 characters and extras. Students ages ranged from 9-16 years of age.*

BICULTURAL TESTING

Evaluation is very difficult. To date there are few commercial tests which evaluate the potential of the culturally different child, because of the assumption his minimum experience is that of Anglo middle-class families. Marion Scully Jewett, et al, (pp. 170-71, 1964) reported phenomenal leaps in intelligence quotient scores as a result of the demonstration project developed with the Higher Horizons Program in New York City. In two years, intelligence quotients of more seriously retarded students (74 to 85) jumped as high as 35 points; reading scores from 5.7 to 7.6 jumped as much as 3.2 years. The Pintner Test Score Project median jumped from 92.9 to 102.2.

Dr. Herschel T. Manuel at the University of Texas writes that he is working on parallel English and Spanish editions of a new inter-American series of general ability and reading tests (grades kindergarten through 13) being released through Guidance Testing Associates. Some are now available. The problem for their general use in the Southwestern classroom is the general lack of ability to read Spanish found among American-Spanish speaking students.

Evaluations of fluency by a teacher working individually with a student have proved most useful in workshop experience. A test developed at the first workshop from Fresno materials has proven very helpful. Its primary handicap is the length of time it takes for individual testing. Main points are

1. *Select an appropriate magazine-size picture.*
2. *Show the picture. "Here's a picture. Tell me about it."*

Record the answers on tape or write what the child says (brief notes can be taken). Don't ask leading questions. Thank him when he finishes. Later analyze his statements on five levels, viz., fluency, meanings, ideas, and sentence structure, as well as number of responses.

Fluency: Recognize that this will be determined both by ability to formulate ideas in English and by the child's emotional security and freedom.

Level 1 – The child does not respond until encouraged.
Level 2 – The child responds with one or more spontaneous remarks but cannot continue.
Level 3 – The child responds with one or more spontaneous remarks and continues with another remark or, when requested, will make comments.
Level 4 – The child responds freely, continues when requested, and is highly productive.
Level 5 – The child's responses are on level 3 or 4, but he includes the teacher in a conversational manner.

Meaning and Ideas:

Level 1 – Naming: a gun, a boat.
Level 2 – Description: "The boy has a new gun."
Level 3 – Interpretation: "The boy is trying to stop the horse."
Level 4 – Narrative interpretation: Two steps of a time sequence: "The dog is waiting for the gun to go off. Then he will run after the bird."
Level 4 – Sentences and evaluative interpretation: "A good hunting dog shouldn't do that," or "Sometimes a dog is more trouble than he is worth."

Sentence Structure:

Level 1 – Isolate words or phrases. These may be strung together with and/or accompanied with gestures.
Level 2 – Simple sentence with one subject and one verb. These may be joined or compounded with and. "The dog can hardly wait," or, "I see a horse and I see a dog".

Level 3 – Simple sentence with compound subject, predicate, or object: "I see a dog and a horse," or, "The dog and the horse both want to run."
Level 4 – Compound sentence containing a conjunction other than "and" or complex sentence containing one dependent clause: "The horse wants to eat the hay but the dog is barking at him."
Level 5 – Sentences containing more than one dependent clause. "I think the horse must be a wild pony that hasn't been broken."

For Vocabulary:

1. Use 25 picture cards from a beginners vocabulary. Show a card and ask "What is it?" "What's he doing?"

Extent of vocabulary:

Level 1 – 5 cards
Level 2 – 6 to 10 cards
Level 3 – 11 to 15 cards
Level 4 – 16 to 20 cards
Level 5 – more than 20 cards

2. Picture story again: Select 4-5 nouns referring to objects. "Tell me what a gun is." If necessary say, "Find one in the picture." Record what he says, then analyze.

Depth of Word Meanings:

Level 1 – Child unable to define or point to object
Level 2 – Points but cannot define
Level 3 – States use as definition "It's to shoot with."
Level 4 – Describes "It's steel with a wood handle."
Level 5 – Classifies: "It's a weapon or "It's something to shoot."

COMMON ERRORS REVEALED BY THE REVIEW:

Structure Problems

1. *The inability to substitute pronouns as subjects.*
2. *The inability to express complete sentences.*

3. The lack of agreement of subject and verb.
4. Lack of ability to use tenses with time expressions.
5. Compound sentences are restricted to the conjunction "and."
6. Tenses are not carried over from part of the sentence to the next in compound sentences.
7. Lack of adequate descriptive words.
8. Difficulty in location of adjectives and use of more than one adjective.
9. Lack of subject fillers such as there are, there is, it is, etc.
10. Inability to use proper prepositions with verbs.
11. Sparsity of prepositional phrases for clarity.
12. Possessive form of nouns.
13. Possessive pronouns.
14. The use of that in place of who, which, etc.
15. Lack of idiomatic usage such as contractions.
16. Location of direct object.
17. Substitution of pronoun for object.
18. Use of real for very.
19. Interchange of "in" and "on"
20. Use of double negatives.
21. Comparative structure.
22. Over verbalization for lack of concise language.
23. Interchange of terms "give" and "take".
24. Redundancy.
25. No clauses – lack of complete clauses.
26. Lack of flexibility – when blocked can't find other words.

OTHER TESTS: Schoolfield's Better speech and Better Reading (Phonovisual) has an excellent diagnostic individual test for detecting incorrect pronunciation of English sounds. Substitutions are isolated end can be detected for correction.

A culture-free test "Common Concepts Foreign Language Test" (Banathy et al., 1960) has eighty frames of four pictures each – the pictures are too small for very young children – and scripts with tapes in English, Spanish, French, and German.

THE TEFOL tests offer promise. The SRA Laboratories offer individually paced testing. (However the native English speaker is likely to advance faster than bilingual students, unless special instruction is first given to the others.)

Old commercial tests are in use and new tests are being devised; to be fair to the culturally different students all tests should be reviewed with them

in mind. The numbers of recognized limited background students – expecially in great cities – is now 1 to 3 (Jewett, et al.). by 1970 the ratio

A test devised in Florida for use in classifying Cuban students (Rojas) can be helpful in teacher evaluation of older students. There is undoubtedly a discrepancy between recognition of sentences read aloud and those read silently by Southwestern students; however for many the selection of Spanish structural patterns in preference to English can be a real key to the need for basic English instruction – and a surprise to the teacher!

For example:

1. Tom Wilson no is a teacher.
2. Tom Wilson isn't a teacher.
3. Tom Wilson not a teacher.
4. Tom Wilson isn't teacher.

Bicultural guidance is concerned with the self-concept; a text which points up weaknesses in com.nercial testing (Rothney, Danielson, and Heimann 1959) can assist a more realistic evaluation of culturally different students. Dr. Paul Danielson illustrated this – by his application of these theories – as Director of the three (1961-63) NDEA Guidance Institutes for Counselors of Bicultural Students at the University of Arizona (Danielson 1961).

A significant new theory of intellect has been reported (Guilford 1959 a, b,c) from research supported by the Office of Naval Research in the Aptitudes Project (University of Southern California). The implication from this multidimensional concept of intelligence is far reaching for evaluation of the culturally different student. Well known intelligence tests are based primarily on verbal comprehension, and these may include only about eight of about fifty known factors of intellect – 120 are hypothesized. Language has its basis in factors of symbolic and semantic logical ability, operating by aptitutes of cognition and memory (parallel but different): the product is a structural language unit and/or a semantic concept. One might speculate that an example of a test question for symbolic logic – which might be used in an English language intelligence test – illustrates the second language learner's possible difficulty with the intonational pattern and vocabulary.

The sentence below contains the name of a sport or game. Name it.

I did not know that he was ailing.

No sabía que estaba enfermo.

Will the Spanish speaker find the sport "sailing"? The consequence? An unfair evaluation of basic aptitude for symbolic logic extended into a totally unrealistic evaluation of intelligence.

Testing is not only for evaluation of intelligence and specific aptitudes, but also for appraisal of learning. Dr. Guilford's implication that the student is less like a vending machine (stimulus-response) and more like an electronic

computor – with the human advantage of seeking, discovering, and programming new information for individual use – suggests an eclectic approach to teaching and evaluating language learning. This means use of divergent (several possible answers) as well as convergent (one possible right answer) methods.

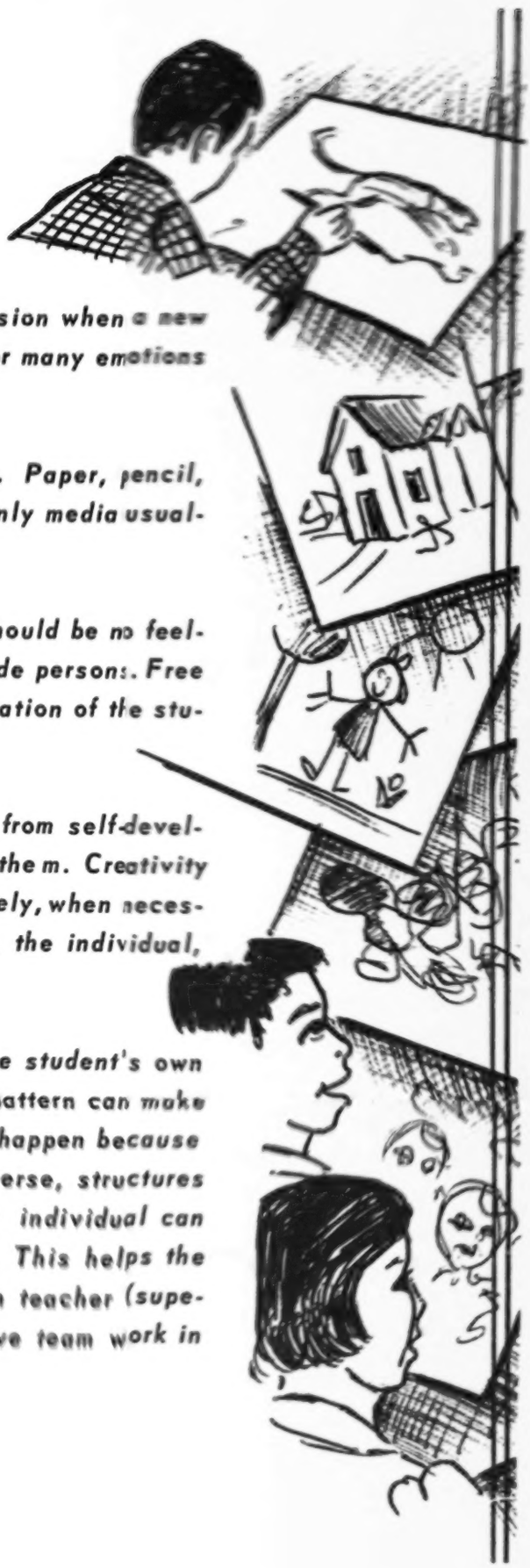
A guidance scale developed at the first workshop was an attempt to provide a sequential scale of language development which could be used by teachers and counselors to evaluate individual English deficiencies. However, sequential development is difficult to control for American students exposed to many unregulated English speech patterns. In the meantime, such a scale can be an index to an individual's gap in English structural patterns and can additionally serve to list available lesson materials for correctional purposes. (In 1963, a start was made on indexing by Mrs. Hobson.) Teachers can make new materials as they find them.

The books used in the 1962 revised scale of patterns of American English are Fries 1952; Taylor 1956; Board of Education, N.Y.; Lado and Fries, 1960.

Items to be Learned	Teaching Patterns
Identification of self	What is your name?
	What's your name?
	My name is
Identification of others	What does your father do?
	He's a mechanic.
	My father is dead.
Other information	Do you speak English at home?
	No, we speak Spanish.
Short answers	Yes, we do.
	What day is it?
Present perfect	We have listened to that record before.
	I've already seen that movie.

(Ed. 296s, pp. 57-70, 1961; pp. 44a to q, 1962)

CONTRIBUTIONS OF ART AND DRAMA TO LANGUAGE LEARNING



Free art activity affords opportunity for expression when a new language is being learned. It provides outlets for many emotions and ideas which often cannot be verbalized.

A great variety of art media is not necessary. Paper, pencil, chalk, crayon, or perhaps water paint, are the only media usually considered necessary.

Complete freedom to draw is essential. There should be no feeling of teacher evaluation or domination by outside persons. Free art work provides opportunity for general observation of the student's interests and skills.

As language develops there can be a transfer from self-developed drawings to verbalization about some of them. Creativity should be nurtured in all individuals. Unfortunately, when necessity demands a structured program of learning, the individual, his wishes and needs are often forgotten.

Free artistic expression which demonstrates the student's own meaning obtained from a structured language pattern can make the experience belong to the student. This will happen because he has shaped it to his own interests. In reverse, structures developed from the creative expression of an individual can make the pattern a reward for his own insight. This helps the teacher change the relationship of authoritarian teacher (superior) to student (inferior) to one of cooperative team work in language learning.

This methodology can be extended by application of socio and psyco drama techniques in classroom plays. Various forms of dramatic presentation can be developed from student interest and vocabulary. Puppets, marionettes, masks, costumes, shadow play technique, and events in fact or fiction are some of the elements which might stimulate drama activity.

Once plot is established, poor sentence patte rns can be modified and corrected. Drill on corrected sentences and word pronounciations is provided through play rehearsal. Tape recordings can assist in presenting correct models and afford student practice of intonation et cetera.

In both graphic art and drama, cultural values, differencesand similarities can often be explained, discussed and evaluated. The actions and emotions of a character drawn on paper or appearing in a play are more easily discussed than the actions and emotions of one's self. Free forms of art, drama, and dance have great value for all children and adults. In teaching language and culture it is often possible to omit these factors. This is a mistake. They are vitally important not only as end products but also as teaching devices. (Axline 1947; Cane 1951; Lowenfeld 1939,57; Moreno 1946; Piaget 1962)

Mr. Jack Schwanke has emphasized the above points in all three workshops as well as in his equally successful work with retarded students in Special Education classes. Experience has convinced even the most ardent beginning teacher of the – sentence patterns-are-the-only-answer-to-our-problem – school of thought that some creative activity by the students not only results in more communication by him with others, but in rapport with the teacher. Just as the teacher needs orientation in linguistic principles, she needs it in principles of drama and art activity.

TAPES

The first workshop was fortunate to enroll two high school Spanish teachers, both experts in making audio-lingual tapes – Mr. Abundio Elías and Mr. Emilio Escáncega. Teaching tapes were made to a) model contrastive Spanish-English grammatical patterns; b) provide counselors and teachers, speaking little or no Spanish, with classroom directions and idioms to help students, speaking little or no English – daily school repetitions providing practice for informal learning; and c) practice in listening to running speech by paragraphs from a Bantam-Dual Language paperback, Cuentos. (In 1963, sections of their textbooks were taped to provide our participant Foreign Students practice for understanding university lectures.) For comprehension, followed by practice in the target language, tapes were made in three sections: Spanish-English, Spanish only, and English only. Equal status was acceded to two languages. (Ed. 296s 1961: 133 directions, pp. 71-75; 156 idioms, pp. 77-84: 1961L 79 idioms, pp. 45-46)

a) Uses of: Estar-Donde; Ser; Idioms using Hacer, Tener

b) Classroom Directions: Do you know what to do? Sabe que hacer?

c) Idioms: 6th grade reader – He was tongue-tied. Estaba con la lengua.

In 1962-1963 Mr. Elias gave daily twenty-minute lessons to practicum students and their teachers using 1961-63 tapes in the university's modern language laboratory; teachers also made tapes for their practicum students and their own later use. Five types were made. (Ed. 296s 1962 pp. 47-52, 55-61) Laboratory drill emphasized reproduction of English speech sounds, patterns of stress, pitch, and rhythm, proper grammatical constructions, and useful vocabulary – emphasis was on idioms.

Examples:

1. Model: The purpose of this part is to give you practice in saying the "sh" sound . . . "shh" . . . at the beginning and at the end of a word. Repeat after me:

Show me the ship	Show me the shoe	(Student repeats – pause)
Show me the ship	Here's the shoe	"
Here's the ship	Show me the dish	
(and so on, and on)		

2. Model: In this lesson you will hear simple dialogues which you will find useful. First you will hear the dialogue in a natural way. Then it will be given in single sentences and you will repeat each sentence.

A: Where's the nearest bus stop?

B: It's on the corner of Park and 22nd.

A: Here comes the bus. Is your change ready? etc. . . . .

(The pattern runs A: B: A: B: A: C: B: C: A: B: C: three voices – eleven different utterances.)

3. Contractions were taught by using days in the week: Model: The instructor will say, "Today is Monday." You will say, "Today is Monday." The instructor will give the correct answer "Today's Monday," You will repeat, "Today's Monday." The instructor will give the correct answer, "It's Monday today." You will repeat, "It's Monday today." Today's Friday. What's tomorrow? (Answer-pause) Tomorrow's Saturday. (Repeat-pause)

4. Dialogues for reinforcement of commonly-encountered patterns included elements of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, intonation, and accepted social forms; these may be extensive if content has already been mastered. Present dialogue naturally first, then break down into elements with much repetition.

5. Tapes providing oral comprehension weregeared to achievement level and read clearly in a natural manner. Sequence, the whole story for listening practice first; then, sentences or long phrases (with time for student repetition of each); finally, the complete story for listening practice again.

Evaluations of these tapes used with practicum students: Faster progress if tape with English and Spanish was used first; improvement of Spanish grammar and idioms of supposedly biiingual students as well as English improvement, more attention when instructions were simple and when maximum student participation was demanded, materials presented in class before drill with tapes.

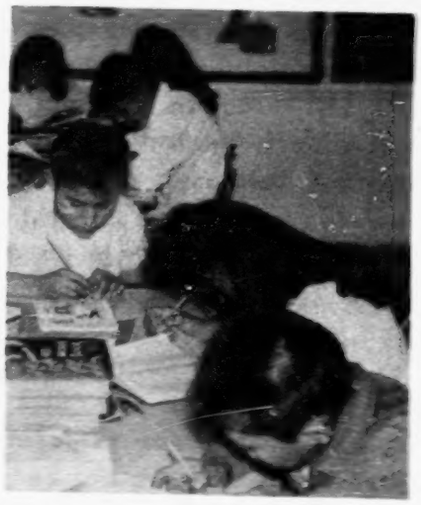
THE REMEDIAL INTERMEDIATE STUDENT

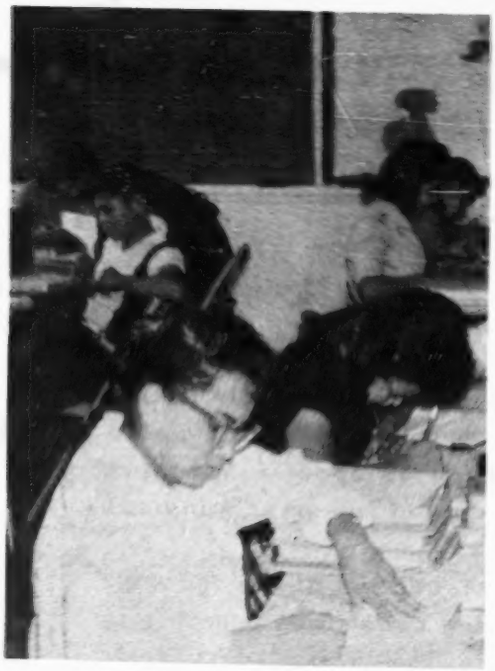
The following data (Samora 1963, tables 2, 3) clearly show the need for remedial work for intermediate and culturally different students from Spanish Surname homes.

EDUCATION 1960*

Percents of Spanish Surname as compared to Anglo

State		-4 yrs.	H.S. and+
Arizona	S:	35.1	14.6
	A:	22.5	45.0
California	S:	24.0	24.4
	A:	3.6	54.8
Colorado	S:	24.0	18.3
	A:	3.2	54.6
New Mexico	S:	29.6	18.9
	A:	3.7	56.9
Texas	S:	52.0	11.7
	A:	6.3	46.3





School years completed by persons with spanish surnames (S) compared to those with Anglo surnames (A); illustration of increases 1950-60

State		1950	1960
Arizona	S:	6.1	7.0
	A:	10.6	11.7
California	S:	7.6	8.6
	A:	11.8	12.1
Colorado	S:	6.4	8.1
	A:	10.9	12.1
New Mexico	S:	7.4	7.7
	A:	9.5	11.5
Texas	S:	3.6	4.7
	A:	9.7	10.8

(With the exception of New Mexico and Arizona, non-white percentages are slightly higher than Spanish Surname percentages.)

Culturally different intermediate and high school speakers of English may constitute a more difficult educational problem than the student who knows no English and can be taught correct patterns at the outset. Why? There are several reasons:

1. Basic confusion about speech sounds and a hodge-podge of non-standard patterns of American English may go unrecognized as special problems. For example, many workshop practicum students have appeared by their animated speech to be highly verbal in English. Only after teachers individually tested them by taping creative responses to pictures (Fresno technique) have they believed the stifling rigidity of many incorrect basic patterns. These were learned as American English patterns and therefore have formed the verbal communication base for the students. The silent communication system of posture, gesture, and facial expression have helped to carry the meaning of words used between students and teacher – thereby disguising further the lack of intonations, phonemic pronunciation, and sentence structure. Further, the talkative students are so willing to volunteer in a group situation that the teachers have failed to realize how many youngsters have not only failed to understand instructions, but in some cases have produced very few or no individual utterances during a class period! Each day of class has put them further behind their peers.

2. Regular remedial programs ordinarily are not geared to the additional needs of these students; the result is a label of personal inferiority for them.

3. The necessary segregation for special drill has become confused with the need to avoid segregation as a social issue. For these students our evaluation based upon workshop and Tucson classroom experiences (Ott and Streiff, 1963; Guptil 1963) endorses the segregation solution for Cuban refugees in Dade County, Florida (Rojas 1963). This is a daily segregated period of oral and listening drill and a second period for reading and writing the material already practiced orally. The class is arranged for intermediate students who understand a great deal of English. Further integration of Spanish-speaking students into Spanish language classes is also endorsed for psychological reasons as well as skills necessary for true bilinguals.

4. The need for mechanical equipment under the control of the teacher providing the daily basic drills in listening and speaking constitues a problem. Repetition in listening for sounds and intonation in speech – and also as it affects meaning in reading – reproduction of the student's production and his listening are important. Also important is production of conversational, choral, and dramatic sequences. The ordinary teacher is not emotionally or physically

Capable of modeling the number of repetitions necessary. Neither can she subdivide,as does an amoeba,and simultaneously model different exercises to meet different corrective needs.

It is the very exceptional teacher who will go through the uncertainty of obtaining and setting up a tape recorder for mechanical modeling of exercises if class presentation is the price of needed mechanical assistance. The result is obvious. Something is accomplished, but the students who need maximum drill most are the ones who again are left out. The teacher resorts to middle of the road techniques and the need of these students for specialized correction of their own particular problems becomes confused with boring repetition of what they already know.

The teacher of these American culturally different students does not have the advantage of homogenous levels of learning in an encapsulated situation as does the "foreign" language teacher. This teacher needs at least one tape recorder, preferably two (with earphones) and one record player for her personal use. She needs blank tapes and model tapes, self made and commercial for her use, just as she has textbooks. Prudent economy in this expenditure can be costly in teaching results. An eight-head phone set can be bought for under sixty dollars to plug into a tape recorder. These sets can be set up in series by using one outlet to handle 28 students. Materials present a problem. For example, tape models take time to make (from our experience a trained teacher spends three minutes to a minute of finished tape; an unskilled teacher may need a minimum of three hours to make a fifteen minute tape). Commercial tapes and records exist, but they are based upon international publications (Macmillan; McGraw Hill) and/or are for adult learners as the Fries-English sentence patterns of Fries. The listen-and-read tapes or records (7-12) can be ordered through your audio-visual equipment center and can be adapted to bicultural teaching of intonation, note-taking, etc. By repetition of these tapes for your culturally different student and emphasis on special features, he can get the same understanding his peers get by one hearing.

The more expensive (usually $1000 minimum) language laboratories are particularly useful for listening in to the students' responses and making spot corrections individually through

the same circuit. This equipment can be valuable for having one person teach short model lessons for introducing the patterns to several classes – as done by Mrs. Beatriz Estrada for Navajo beginners (Condie, ed 1963; Estrada 1963). It does not replace the equipment needed to provide additional practice in the classroom.

5. What materials are appropriate for use with mechanical drill on sounds? The International Phonetic Alphabet (Prator 1957; Fries Book 5, 1955) has been used effectively in Tucson area classrooms (Streiff 1963; Guptil 1963). Students appear to enjoy using adult scientific symbols. Sounds associated correctly with the new symbol appear to assist not only hearing their own sound production but also correcting it. This carries over into reading.

Pitman International Teaching Alphabet, (ITA) might also be helpful now that practice materials are available (Gunther 1964) paralleling a similar phonic presentation of sounds first published by J. B. Lippincott. The Hay-Wingo Phonics (Lippincott 1954) has been followed by other publishers who have specialized in phonic reading materials. (Economy Company and Phonovisual) An increasing number of publishers are basing readers and spellers on phonics among them Lippincott's New Basic Reading Series which goes even further by incorporatin linguistic principles (1-8).

6. Adaptation of commercial materials takes the teacher's time, preparation of new materials can take even more time. When allowance is not made for these pilot programs the teacher's spirit may remain willing – but without the materials, does the student get maximum benefit from the teacher's capability? Follett's reading readiness and spelling program (K-8) also has materials which might be useful for bilingual beginners.

The ITA and the IPA have many similar symbols, but there are several differences. A teacher's personal preference can be important in success from use of either.

7. The ordinary teacher does not know how English sounds are really produced nor how to demonstrate them. Lips, teeth, breath, position in the mouth, muscular tension are all important. For example: A teacher, articulating with exaggeration, can show the pupil with her hand at her face or throat or before her mouth how the jaw is tense or relaxed, how the vocal cords vibrate, or how the sound escapes on a rush of air. As the student tries to reproduce these same conditions he begins to "fe el" then "hear" the two sounds.

The second language learner often fails to hear the differences between the voiced and unvoiced consonants such as "d" and "t" or "s" and "z". The teacher can guide the child to artificial production of the sound, and once the child feels the vibration of the vocal cords with the voiced sounds or feels the rush of air with the unvoiced sounds, he begins to hear the difference.

8. Can intermediate teachers with culturally-different students count on their natural brightness to fill in the missing vocabulary and cultural background needed for comprehension of college leterature and other textual sources? Can these students learn through association with others the correct forms for auxiliary verbs so that for the tricky "I do" they do not use constructions which make other students smile, such as, "I did studied my lesson thoroughly." Can they be taught to enter classroom discussions for oral analysis of concepts developed through reading so that they can subsequently write compositions in good English instead of the sub-standard English which is their basic communication pattern? Can they learn to hear and produce the sounds of the English system, the intonation patterns, and the idiomatic expressions? According to Dr. Elinor Clemons (1963), her Freshman English course for bilingual students at Arizona State College indicates that they can learn these things, but that many certainly haven't by the time they have reached college!

After two years of 10-20 minute daily drill, English classes, at Wakefield Junior High School were proud of their identification and production of sounds on illustrated charts, these used from IPA symbols in the Appendix on Pronunciation and Spelling of Book 5, Teachers' Guide (Fried 1955). For example, to present the difference between "d" and "t". Mrs. Arline Hobson describes her procedure as follows:

Step 1: LISTEN AGAIN FOR THE DIFFERENCE IN SOUND.

da	*ta*	
de	*te*	*CAN YOU HEAR THE DIFFERENCE?*
di	*ti*	*(If the replies are negative, repeat.)*
do	*to*	
du	*tu*	

When replies are affirmative, pass out Fries charts. Help the student to see the tongue position. Point out that the beginning position only is shown, and that the sound is not heard until the sound is finished. Help the student realize that both sounds are formed the same way in the mouth – but they are voiced differently.

Step 2: Suggested drills for aural and oral discrimination between "d" and "t":
LISTEN CAREFULLY AND WATCH CLOSELY. MY HANDS ARE AT THE SIDES OF MY THROAT AND I CAN FEEL VIBRATION. (The vowel sounds are short)

da	*da*	*da*	*da*
de	*de*	*de*	*de*
di	*di*	*di*	*di*
do	*do*	*do*	*do*
du	*du*	*du*	*du*

NOTICE HOW MY HANDS ARE IN FRONT OF MY MOUTH. I CAN FEEL A RUSH OF AIR: (The vowel sounds are short)

ta	*ta*	*ta*	*ta*
te	*te*	*te*	*te*
ti	*ti*	*ti*	*ti*
to	*to*	*to*	*to*
tu	*tu*	*tu*	*tu*

Slowly repeat the above drills pausing for the student to repeat after you. Use exaggeration such as:

1. *Teacher: da Student: da*
2. *Teacher: ta Student: ta*
3. *Teacher: da-ta Student: da-ta*

Step 3: Repeat Step 1.

Step 4: When they have mastered the above, continue a drill with minimal pairs, using the sounds in both initial and final position, such as:

dab	*tab*	*ride*	*right*
door	*tore*	*side*	*sight*
dough	*toe*	*add*	*at*
do	*to*	*heed*	*heat*

Minimal pairs fascinate the students, and if you ask them to contribute pairs for drill they may offer inaccuracies that point up continued confusion. This makes an ideal situation for intensive drill to sharpen discrimination; "d" and "t" in medial positions in words are not conducive to minimal pairing, but the sounds in that position need to be heard clearly and uttered clearly. Similar drills with teacher utterances followed by student utterances should sharpen discrimination with such words as:

garden idle letter cotton

Correlate step 5 with step 6: Use sentences for drills that involve both "d" and "t" sounds; use them in initial, medial, and final positions. Emphasize sentence rhythm of pitch, stress, and juncture.

Step 5: Suggested sentences are:

1. Dad took the little tot out.

2. The toad sat idly under the old tree.

Step 6: The sentence rhythm comes into better focus if the teacher begins from the end of the sentence first like this:

Teacher: Under the old tree´

Student: Under the old tree

Teacher: sát idly under the old tree´

Student: sat idly under the old tree

Teacher: The toad sat´ idly under the old tree´.

Student: The toad sat idly under the old tree.

The teacher can gradually but eventually lead the students to generalizations about stress and unstress and juncture that provide grammatical clues. For example, in a prepositional phrase such as "under the old tree", the preposition is characteristically unstressed and the noun object is characteristically stressed.

Step 7: With the help of the children who may suggest some of the popular songs of their age group, we should search for choral reading materials that use one or both of these two sounds commonly, such as:

"I wrote a letter to my love and on the way I dropped it,
A little doggie picked it up and put it in his pocket." etc.

Step: Testing reveals whether we can now move on to another area of drill or whether we need to continue work on these same two sounds, always finding new sentences or new choral readings so that boredom won't negate the drill.

A good way to test is to require an oral utterance from the students individually. One way is for the teacher to ask each child a different question and ask the pupil to change it to a statement such as:

Teacher: Did he put that old toy under the table?

Student: He put that old toy under the table.

Another way to check is to utter words for the student and to ask him to write down whether he hears a "d" or a "t" in the initial, medial, or final position.

Marjorie Streiff has very successfully approached reading through listening and precise sound identification coupled with correct phonemic production. The IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) has been used as a departure point. Her original charts contrast Spanish and English sounds (Streiff 1963).

8. Requirements for teacher produced materials are frequently misunderstood. Two publishers – Macmillan and McGraw Hill – have transferred international sales divisions to English as second language teaching. However, like Heath's American English Series (Fries-Rojas Puerto Rican materials) these have two definite handicaps for American intermediate use without teacher adaptation. They were designed for sequential patterned instruction under control of the instructor. First, for the immigrant without any English, these materials may be excellent; for the vast majority who already believe they speak American English because they have communicated for years in their various versions of the language, these materials are unduly repetitious for general class use. They require selection of items and adaptation of materials by the teacher. Secondly, these materials are designed for beginning at the fourth to sixth grade levels – the levels at which English language teaching abroad usually begins. Again, adaptation is needed for selected drills. This is not to say that these materials are not useful; they can be, with adaptation by the teacher.

The U.S. Office of Education bulletin (Jewett 1964) offers many practical suggestions from classroom experiences. The Dixson Guide (Dixson 1960) offers others. The Workshop bulletins (E. R. Leighton, 1961-1962) offer suggestions based upon application with practicum students. The first two are in paperback and can be purchased very reasonably; the Workshop bulletins are not available except in public libraries of Tucson; Phoenix; and Gallup, New Mexico; the University of Arizona; and from Workshop participants. Some students are reproducing copies of sections by the University of Arizona photostatic service. (See p. 2 for copy rates from E. Ruby Leighton and Associates.)

The English Sequential Pattern Drills for Spanish Speaking Students (Intermediate Levels) with an accompanying workbook written by Marjorie Streiff, with assistance from Aileen McHenry at Wakefield Junior High School, were two of three planned publications which Mrs. Streiff (Streiff 1963) adapted from linguistic materials for District Number 1, Tucson, Arizona. These were experimental publications as were Beatriz Estrada's (Estrada 1963) beginners guides for Gallup-McKinley County, New Mexico, and Elizabeth Willink's Navajo Beginner Guide for the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

Mrs. Elizabeth Willink, consultant for the U of A Workshop for Teachers of Bilingual Children, talks with a group of the children from Tucson schools who have come to the workshop for practice in English. The children pictured are Mexican, Yaqui and Papago (Sheaffer photo by Dick Wisdom)

EX-JOURNALIST FINDS CAREER TEACHING INDIANS ENGLISH

By Judy Donovan

When Mrs. Elizabeth Willink immigrated to the United States from Holland nine years ago with her husband and children she was an experienced and widely-traveled journalist in her own right.

The furthest thing from her mind, she says, was a career in teaching. Yet this diminutive and energetic Dutch woman is now engaged in one of the most demanding and specialized fields of education in the country – teaching elementary school for Navajo Indian children at the reservation boarding school at Shiprock, N. M.

"The children in my third grade come from way back in the reservation," she said, "and they've had little, if any, exposure to English. But teaching them or any other children a foreign tongue is more a matter of understanding the limitations and variations of their language than anything else. If a teacher understands, for instance, that the Navajo language has a prominent 'glottal sound' (the cutoff breath sound we make when we say, 'oh oh'), she'll realize that it's very difficult for a Navajo to say anything in English without this choppy, choked sound. It has to be corrected by special attention or an Indian child will never be able to speak English correctly."

Her linguistic approach to teaching children a foreign language which she has experimented with for four years among the Indians is being applied during Mrs. Willink's current position as consultant for the University of Arizona's five-week Workshop for Teachers of Bilingual Children now being conducted.

She believes that not only vocabulary and grammar are important for getting a language across to a child but also phonetic aspects, intonation as a means of carrying meaning and explanation of the finer shades of meaning to a word – all areas which were formerly ignored by most programs of language instruction.

The workshop directors hope to turn out school teachers who will share what they learn there about linguistics with other teachers in their schools. The children used for the instruction in the workshop were chosen by Tucson schools to give them an opportunity for practical English under the specialized remedial instruction in which Mrs. Willink excels.

Originally planning to career in law, Mrs. Willink earned a master's degree in law from the University of Amsterdam but her talents became channeled into journalism. After working in the Rockefeller Institute for Advanced Studies in Geneva, Switzerland, she became a journalist in her native land, Holland, and traveled and wrote extensively in the Saharan region and Nigeria. Just prior to World War II she was on the editorial staff of a weekly periodical with headquarters at The Hague.

For some years after her marriage to another Dutch journalist, who was also a novelist and illustrator, she remained at home, free lancing and writing radio scripts, especially for the counterpart of the Voice of America, known as the Voice of Netherlands. She also became a correspondent for the Netherlands Information Bureau in New York, keeping the bureau informed of news events in Holland.

As a result of her many travels Mrs. Willink speaks fluent English, French, German and knows some Indonesian, learned as a child in Java, and also Russian.

The teaching part of her life began when the Willinks and their children came to this country under the sponsorship of American friends whom they had known in Geneva. From Washington, D.C., they established their work, Mr. Willink as a commercial artist and Mrs. Willink as a teacher in private and public schools in Virginia.

When her husband returned to Holland, she and the children moved to the Navajo Reservation in the northwestern corner of New Mexico and she undertook the task of teaching children for whom English is a second language.

Mrs. Willink plans to complete requirements for a doctorate in education at the U of A but will be back at Shiprock in September to continue her work with the Indians.

This section brings together sources not previously cited herein. It concludes a handbook compilation which is not only personal but is deliberately selective. Suggestions are those which the editor and her associates would, in general, make to friends who are interested in current theoretical concepts of English learning which, in combination with those of culturally influenced behavior, might be advantageously applied to their culturally different students. Since the readers of this handbook can be expected to include those interested in beginning to explore the possibilities of individual classroom applications; those concerned with administrative financing and scheduling of classes and research programs; those charged with teacher-training, ranging from specific methodologies to general orientations, from university programs to in-service school programs; those charged with recruitment and certification of teachers; those charged with community understanding of innovations; and those interested in professional graduate advancement of individuals in specialized disciplines pertaining to bicultural education – it is obvious that omission of many excellent sources has been because of space limitations.

The Linguistic Reporter

The Linguistic Reporter is the newsletter of the Center for Applied Linguistics. It is published six times a year and is free. A postcard places you on the mailing list: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1755 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 36, D. C. Att: Subscription Secretary. Also ask for Vol. 6: No. 1, Feb. 1964: No. 3, June 1964, with Supplement No. 12. In these issues are various reports of interest.

For example, the Peace Corps (Guss 1964) English Program (TEFL) at various universities, was divided into basic areas of study as follows: 1) general linguistics, 2) English sound patterns and structure, 3) contrastive analysis with that of the host country, 4) basic principles of second language learning, 5) comparison of the various techniques developed for teaching English, 6) special problems encountered by their hosts in learning English, 7) preparation of teaching and testing materials, and 8) study of and instruction in the use of audio-lingual aids available. Widely used texts and visual aids were: Gleason 1955; Francis 1958; Prator 1957; Fries 1945; Lado and Fries 1956; and the film series from Teaching Film Custodians, Inc. A Peace Corps recommendation was that current TEFL training programs put more emphasis on the practical rather than the theoretical, with as much time as possible being devoted to practice teaching and material preparation. Another program (McArdle 1964) is that of TOEFL sponsored by the MLA, Center for Applied Linguistics, for testing English taught as a foreign language. A selective and annotated report on films in the fields of linguistics, language teaching, and related subjects has been included (Varley 1964).

Additional English sources:

A linguist's analysis of teaching a second language: (Lado 1964; Brooks 1960)
A programmed college course in linguistics (Buchanan 1963)
A college remedial course in grammar, suitable for foreign students (Praninskas 1961) for speech (Gordon and Wong 1961)
The Journals of the National Council of Teachers of English (Elementary English; The English Journal; and College English), NCTE Executive Secretary Dr. James R. Squire, 508 South Sixth St., Champaign, Illinois 352-0523.
The National Association for Foreign Affairs, att. Dr. Betty W. Robinett, Ball State Teachers College.

SUGGESTED SOURCES FOR CONSULTATION ABOUT BILINGUAL-BICULTURAL EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS

GOVERNMENT, Wash., D. C.: 1) The Commission on Civil Rights – Mr. Walter S. Valverde, Soc. Sc. Analyst. 2) The Department of HEW – USOE: a) Mrs. Esther Eaton, Modern language Spec.; b) Dr. James Spillane, Director of the Institute Program; c) Dr. A. Bruce Gaarder, Foreign Languages, Title III, NDEA, Division of State Grants (reporting to the Northeast Conference on Teaching of Foreign Languages about pilot programs for bilingual schools and recruitment of native language teachers). d) Cooperative grants and small grants for individuals. 3) USPHS Grants, including individual small grants, USPHS publication No. 415. NIMH (Div. of Research Grants, Bethesda 14, Md.) 4) Department of the Interior – BIA, Mrs. Hildegarde Thompson, Chief, Branch of Education.

STATED: 1) Ariz.: Mrs. Mamie Sizemore, (Pres., ABC, 1964-65), Classroom Specialist, Indian Education Div., State Capitol bldg., Phoenix. Calif.: Miss Helen Heffernon, Chief, Branch of Elementary Education; consultants: Miss Afton Dill Nance; Mrs. Julia Gonsalves, 721 Capitol Mall, Sacramento 14. Colo.: Alfred M. Potts, 2nd, Office of Instructional Services, State Dept. of Ed., State Office Bldg. Denver. N.M.: Dr. LeRoy Condie, Linguist, Indian Ed. Div., State House, Santa Fe. Texas: Mr. Jack McIntosh, Coordinator Stay-in-School-Project, Capitol Station, Texas Ed. Agency, Austin. Utah: State Dept. of Public Instr., 223 State Capitol, Salt Lake City.

FOUNDATIONS: 1) Ford: a) Dr. Pauline Rojas, Director, Dade County School Project, Miami, Florida (Bilingual school; instructional reading materials, first two grades. b) Mr. John K. Hughes, Director, (3PM) Phoenix Project in Pupil Motivation, Inc., 317 No. Central Ave.; Choate: Mr. Robert Choate, Director; Mrs. Grace Gil Olivarez, Consultant in Mexican-American cultural problems, programs benefiting minority youth 604 Security Bldg. Phoenix, Arizona.

UNIVERSITIES: Often, interested individuals in various university departments have had many years of related SW States' background in research and direct education of bicultural students. For example, in Arizona, Dr. Robert Roessel, Director of the Indian Dept., College of Education, Arizona State University in Tempe, has spent years on the Navajo reservation. At the University of Arizona in Tucson, there are too many, with this professional interest in guidance, communication skills and culture, to mention more than a few in several of the departments. In anthropology (cultural and linguistic): Doctors Edward Spicer, Edward Dozier, and Harry Getty. English: Dr. Cecil Robinson. Speech: Doctors Klonda Lynn and George Sparks. Modern languages (Spanish): Doctors Guido Capponi and Charles Olstad. College Education: Doctors Paul Danielson (guidance) R. Van Allen (reading consultant for bilingual programs in Calif. and Texas) and Marie Hughes (extensive experience with early bilingual teaching research programs in N.M. and Los Angeles county of Calif. (1957, 1951, 1932).

There is growing appreciation of these resources with current realization of need to preserve ethnic heritages in language and culture and at the same time to bring English communication skills to a level necessary for an assumption of full citizenship rights and responsibilities. The unique environmental situation of the University of Arizona, and the teaching and research resources have led to the English department's initial suggestion of a Bicultural Institute of the Southwest as the logical step beyond the independent and inter-disciplinary summer workshop activities, such as those sponsored by the College of Education. Participation in such a university institute, as a kind of behavioral laboratory for education, is not confined to the campus. Community agencies, such as city and county school districts, the ABC, and private, as well as governmental agencies, are indicating support.

The professional planning scope for the Bicultural Institute is comprehensive. The philosophy of academic participation (Teachers College Record Fe 1964) is inter-disciplinary and inter-community. It encompasses theoretical and operational research in language and the behavioral sciences. It provides for the necessary "feedbacks" for application of innovations to regular departmental curricula for teaching bicultural methodology in various disciplines – the target is productive classroom instruction of culturally different students.

E. ROBY LEIGHTON AND ASSOCIATES – WHAT SERVICES CAN WE OFFER YOU FOR A WORTHWHILE INVESTMENT?

This handbook suggests the range of our interests and capabilities as Educational Consultants. Our organization is flexible, calling on participating associates for their specific skills, but only as they are required by contractual committments. This makes possible a co-ordinated team approach to a program tailored to the specific needs of your educational program – but with a minimum of overhead cost to you. It includes – either on an annual retaining basis with monthly fee, or as one or more specific contractual services – various levels of planning; orientation through conferences, in-service programs, lectures; preparation of, or consultation about, co-texts and workbooks for publishers.

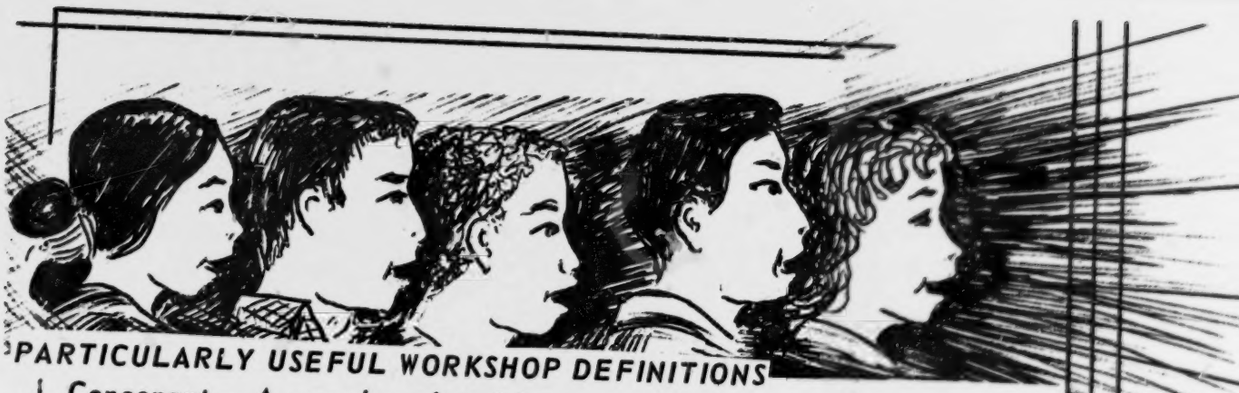
An example of how specific a service is possible follows: Mrs. Edith Green, in Northern California is an Associate with administrative and teaching experience, among Negros as well as Navajo students on the reservation. She is an expert on Navajo dyes and weaving, has materials for a third grade co-text on the Navajo and is in demand as a lecturer. Similarly, experience and materials are available at all levels and from various aspects, from other Associates also teaching and specializing primarily in Spanish-speaking and SW Indian education.

Our Educational Consultation service has been organized to fill the gap between developed public and school in-service sources for this kind of over-view of bicultural, bilingual education. Hopefully the gap will be closed before too long. In the meantime we – as private consultants – believe we can pool our efforts, with the editor as Co-ordinator, and meet a need which exists today. We also believe that, by tailoring programs to your specific problems in administrative planning, bicultural guidance, classroom inova - tions, and development of materials, you can obtain results while saving your institution both time and money.

We realize that many schools have limited budgets and feel they cannot afford personal consultation – at least initially, it's usually the most efficient service. As modern educators, one way we can help cut costs, is to utilize tape recordings for your description of your needs, and our tape recorded responses. Another is use of multiple-station telephone conferences which can be pre-arranged; if advisable these can cover the country geographically for a half hour conference which is, in proportion to physical assembly of such a conference, quite inexpensive. More conventional is a mail request for a service such as a step-by-step sample lesson (See Remedial Intermediate Level Student) accompanied by suggestions for sources, which the teacher can then develop. (To copy materials is expensive; to cover costs of reproducing pages in the Ed 296s bulletins the charge has been set at 50 cents a page for the first copy, and 15 cents a page for each additional copy.) Otherwise, we shall be happy to submit quotations for contractual services upon receipt of your requirements.

A MIXED BAG OF SOURCES:

252 (teaching picture cards) (Kreidler and Sutherland 1963); Teaching Film Custodians, Inc. (25 West 43rd Street, N. Y. 36, N. Y.) Junior High level English (Postman, Morine, and Morine 1963); elementary: phonetic keys to reading (Cordts 1962); Schoolfields diagnostic tests for speech (Phonovisual Products, Inc. 4805 Wisconsin Ave. n.w. Wash., D. C.) Parade's new guide to Reading (72 pages: $1.00 to Parade, Dept. 20, Box 475, Radio City Station, N. Y. 19, N. Y. – Carl Bernard Smith); Testing: Abilities – Spanish, Guidance Testing Associates (6516 Shirley Ave., Austin, Texas – Manuel 1964); suggested for possible use counseling application Developmental Series of Scholastic Testing Service (200 Nieto Avenue, Long Beach, Calif.) SRA: reading laboratories and general ability series in Spanish (259 East Erie Street, Chicago 11, Illinois); various linguistic materials including tapes, tests, records, charts: (English Language Institute, University of Michigan: Follett's Michigan Book Store 322 South State Street, Ann Arbor). Suggestive: kinesthetic methods and self discovery principles: a) Montessori Society (175 Fifth Ave., N. Y. City 10010) b) Edison Responsive Environment Instrument (REC: Responsive Environments Corporation, 21 E. 40th St. N. Y. City 10016).



PARTICULARLY USEFUL WORKSHOP DEFINITIONS

Consonant – A sound produced by an obstruction, or blocking or some other restriction of the free passage of air exhaled from the lungs through the oral cavity.

Grammar – The study of the structure of a language and its rules. "Grammar consists of the devices that signal structural meanings."

Idiom – "The idiom" is a term used to denote the general linguistic or grammatical character of a language. "An idiom" is any expression peculiar to a language which conveys distinct meaning but may not conform to generally accepted grammatical rules.

Idiomatic expression – An expression accepted as part of simple everyday speech which has a distinct, specific meaning of its own, often incompatible with or even contrary to the individual meanings of the words which compose it.

Juncture – Joints or cuts in utterances occuring before and after syllables. These may be called pitch-pauses. In English, four kinds of juncture are used. Punctuation in writing may correspond to some types of juncture as the comma, the semicolon, the question mark, and the period.

Linguistics – A body of scientific observations, facts, and systematic theory about language in general and languages in particular.

Phoneme substitution – The tendency of the speaker of one language to substitute the familiar sounds of his own language for the similar but unfamiliar sounds of the new language.

2

Pitch – The rise and fall of the voice in speech. There are four pitch phonemes in English: /1/ low, /2/ monotone or normal, /3/ high, /4/ very high. The consonant, vowel, and semi-vowel phonemes are overlaid with pitch phonemes; pitch also accompanies stress and juncture.

Stress – The prominence given in speech to a syllable (accent) or word (sence-stress) which makes it stand out above the syllables or words next to it. Stress may be produced by increased force of utterance or loudness, by changing the pitch of the voice, or by lengthening the duration of the utterance. In English four major degress of stress are used: primary or loud or heavy, secondary or medium stress, tertiary or light stress, and weak stress.

Structure – The ordered or patterned set of contrasts or oppositions which are presumed to be discoverable in a language, whether in the units of sound, the grammatical inflections, the syntactical arrangments, or in the meanings of linguistic forms. (Carroll)

Syntax – The study of the manner in which sentences are constructed from words. Syntax is closely related to morphology because the morphological constructions of a language are usually greatly conditioned by syntactical arrangement and because the building blocks of a sentence consist of words as members of form classes. (Carroll)

Utterance – In general, any self-sufficient unit of speech, not always the equivlent of a traditionally defined sentence. An utterance may be charaterized by a preceding, or following, silent pause.

Vowel – A speech sound produced by the unobstructed passage of air through the oral cavity with voicing or vibration of the vocal folds. Lack of friction is characteristic of a vowel. Each vowel has its own distinctive pattern of resonance.

Note:

These definitions were derived by Mrs. Marjorie Streiff from several linguistic texts. They were selected from the 1963 bulletin. (eight pages)

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1962 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

U O I E A
TEACHERS GUIDE

BLANK PAGE

STAFF 1961 – 1963

E. ROBY LEIGHTON, Ph. D., Coordinator
Summer Lecturer, College of Education (1961-1963)
Educational Consultant (1963-1964)
2934 E. Cushman Drive
Tucson, Arizona

PHYLLIS BELL, Secretary (1961-62)
(Mrs. Peter Quist)
5401 E. Andrew
Tucson, Arizona

ABUNDIO ELIÁS, Language Laboratory
Instructor of Spanish
Rincon High School
Tucson, Arizona (Student 1961)

BETTY FREY, Phonetics and
Music – Practicum
Instructor
Amphitheater Junior High School
Director, Laubach Literacy Council
Tucson, Arizona

JEANNE HERBERT, High School Program (1961)
English Teacher
Tuba City High School
Tuba City, Arizona

ARLINE HOBSON, Linguistic and
Cultural Enrichment Activities
Language Arts Instructor
Window Rock Junior High
Fort Defiance, Arizona (1961)
Safford Junior High
Tucson, Arizona
Exploratory project to meet
cultural differences.

JACK SCHWANKE, Dramatic Arts
(Adult Education Specialist – 1961)
Crownpoint, New Mexico
Arts and Crafts
Gump School
Tucson, Arizona

MARJORIE STREIFF, Applied Linguistics and
Phonetic Materials
Language Arts and Social Studies
Wakefield Junior High
Tucson, Arizona
Pilot project for Mexican-American students.

ACTING STAFF

GRACE BLOSSOM, Indian Education and
TESOL specialist
Consultant, (1961-1962)
Bogota, Colombia (1963)
725 E. Ocotillo
Phoenix 14, Arizona

LUCILLE E. HAND, Primary Program (1961)
Student 1961
Primary Teacher
Ritchie School
Tucson, Arizona

MAMIE SIZEMORE, Indian Education and
TESOL Specialist
U. of Michigan Language Inst. 1961
Indian Division, Arizona Dept. of
Education, Phoenix, Arizona

PAUL STREIFF, Mexican Culture and
Foreign Students
(Sp. Student 1962; Consultant 1963)
Safford Junior High
Leader, Exploratory Project to Meet
Cultural Differences

Welcome Addresses

MAURICE GEMMELL (1961)
Director, Indian Division
State Department of Public Instruction
Capitol Building
Phoenix, Arizona

Cecil Robinson, Ph. D. (1962)
Associate Professor of English
University of Arizona
Tucson, Arizona
IIE Summer Institute for
Teaching English to Foreign Students
Author, "With the Eagles of Strangers"
1963, Univ. of Arizona Press

Edward H. Spicer, Ph. D. (1962)
Professor of Cultural Anthropology
University of Arizona
Tucson, Arizona
Author, "Cycles of Conquest"
1962, Univ. of Arizona Press

Laurence Muir, Ph. D. (1963)
Chairman, English Department
University of Arizona

Mr. Connie Chambers (1963)
Executive Secretary
La Reforma Housing Project
Tucson, Arizona

Simon Stopol (1963)
Community Relations
KVET Spanish Radio Station
Tucson, Arizona

Frank Ott (1963)
Wakefield Jr. High School
Principal
Tucson, Arizona

Lecturers

Charles L. Bernardoni (1961-1962)
Guidance Specialist
Indian Division, State Capitol
Phoenix, Arizona
"Testing"

LeRoy Condie, Ph. D. (1962)
Indian Division, Linguist
New Mexico Dept. of Education
1033 Princeton
Albuquerque, New Mexico
"Value of Oral-aural drill as against the
incidental method of teaching English
(demonstration of his book, "Little White Horse.")

P. J. Danielson, Ph.D. (1961-1962)
Professor, Dept. of Education
University of Arizona
"Bilingual Testing"

Edward Dozier, Ph. D. (1962-1963)
Professor, Cultural Linguistics
University of Arizona
"Characteristics of Southwestern
Indian Languages"

Elvira Dunlap, (1961)
Helping Teacher of IC Program for
Spanish Speaking Beginners.
Tucson, Arizona
"Explanation of Theory & Demonstration
of Materials"

Harry T. Getty, Ph. D. (1961)
Associate Prof. Cultural Anthropology
University of Arizona
"History, Cultural Values of the
Southwestern Indian"

Norman Greenberg, Ph.D. (1963)
College of Education, Ass't. Professor
University of Arizona
"Culturally Disadvantaged Child"

Ronald Henderson (1963)
Spring Jr. High School
"Structural Linguistics"

Raymond Klein, Ph.D. (1963)
Associate Professor of Education
University of Arizona
"Teaching Machines"

Orpha MacPherson, Ph.D. (1961-1963)
Education Specialist, (Ret.)
Phoenix, Arizona
"Cultural Aspects Affecting the
Classroom Behaviour of Indian Students"

Jack R. Matlock (1962)
Guidance and Evaluation Consultant
California Test Bureau
2637 Knoxville Ave.
Long Beach 15, California
"Testing"

Marvin Mull, (1961)
Vice-Chairman Tribal Council
San Carlos, Arizona
"Problems of Apache Education"

Iris Mulvaney (1963)
(Student, Acting Staff 1962)
Secondary Language Arts
Coordinator, District No. One
Tucson, Arizona
"Structural English"

John Nist, Ph.D. (1963)
Professor, Dept. of English
University of Arizona
"Structural Linguistics and
History of English."

Mrs. Eva G. Northrup (1961)
Oraibi, Arizona
"Inter-Tribal Problems"

Mrs. Grace Olivarez (1963)
Robert Choate & Associates
Educational Consultants
Box 2326
Phoenix, Arizona
"Conflicts in Mexican-American
Cultural Values"

Anne Merriman Peck (1963)
Authoress
1221 E. 10th
Tucson, Arizona
"Creative Writing for Children"

Pauline Rojas, Ph.D. (1963)
Director, Ford Foundation Project
Counsultant, Bilingual Education
Dade County Public Schools
1410 N. E. 2nd Ave.
Miami, Florida
"Teaching English to Spanish Speakers" (with
demonstrations of the American English Series
done unde. her direction.) July 1-4

Mrs. Ella Rumley (1961-1962)
3034 E. Rickey Vista
Tucson, Arizona
(Practicum)

Dean Saxton, Ph.D. (1963)
Wycliff Bible Institute Linguist
Sells, Arizona
"Papago Language, minimal pairs"

Mary Shepherd (1962)
Window Rock Lodge
Window Rock, Arizona

Mr. and Mrs. Roger Spencer (1961)
Apartado, Postal 19
Guaymas, Mexico
(Rating)

Donald R. Thomas, Ph.D. (1961)
College of Education
University of Arizona
"New York City Puerto Rican Program"

Nerth Urquides (1963)
Dean of Girls
Pueblo High School
Tucson, Arizona

Mrs. Editha Watson (1962)
c/o Library
Window Rock, Arizona
"The Sacred Places of the Navajo"

Mrs. Elizabeth Willink (1961-1963)
Teacher, Bureau of Indian Affairs
Shiprock, New Mexico
Lectures on Linguistics

Allen Yazzie (1962)
Chairman, Education Committee
Navajo Tribal Council
Window Rock, Arizona
"Navajo Tribal Educational Program"

J. D. Fosdick (1961)
Education Specialist
BIA, Area Office
Phoenix, Arizona
(Observation and Conferences on Indian Educational Problems)

Mrs. H. B. Frobisher (1961)
Oasis Ranch
Cortaro, Arizona
(Speech practicuum)

Ray Narcho (1961-1962)
1915 East 12th St.
Tucson, Arizona
(Practicuum)

Education Committee, San Carlos Apache

Mrs. Loretta M. Benally (1961)
Box 30
San Carlos, Arizona

Chester Buck (1961)
Bylas, Arizona

Thomas B. Nosie (1961)
Bylas, Arizona

Mrs. Cecelia Sneezy (1961)
San Carlos, Arizona

Emilio B. Escarcega (1962)
Instructor of Spanish
Tucson, Arizona (student 1961)
(Recording Equipment)

Students

Mable Asplin, 1962
6542 E. Cooper
Tucson, Arizona

Hermina C. Avashai, 1963
502 E. 5th St.
Tucson, Arizona

Aloys Barekarani, 1963
Burundi, Africa

Ruby Bates, 1963
Good Shepherd Mission
Fort Defiance, Arizona

Mable Blow, 1963
4237 E. Kings Rd.
Tucson, Arizona

Gertrude E. Burrows, 1962
517 North First Avenue
Tucson, Arizona

Dorothy Chasteen, 1963
1926 W. Grant
Tucson, Arizona

Josephine Christoffersen, 1963
Yarnell, Arizona

Agnes Crisp, 1963
1419 E. Adelaide Drive
Tucson, Arizona

Anna Mary Ducote, 1962
1730 East Hedrick Drive
Tucson, Arizona

Esther Eichenberger, 1963
Sells, Arizona

Lucille Ellingboe, 1963
1128 E. Elm
Tucson, Arizona

Frank Estrada, 1961
Tohatchi Jr. High School
Tohatchi, New Mexico

Edith Fennessy, 1963
1113 Duquesne Drive
Tucson, Arizona

Kenneth Ferryman, 1963
4466 East Seneca
Tucson, Arizona

Doris P. Frederick, 1962
3750 E. Fairmount
Tucson, Arizona

June Rhea Gray, 1962
6121 East 25th
Tucson, Arizona

Beatriz Guturrez, 1963
1713 E. Glenn
Tucson, Arizona

Bobbie J. Hall, 1962
1103 North 10th Ave.
Tucson, Arizona

Anna Fay Hampton, 1961
770 West Pima
Coolidge, Arizona

Louise Hayden, 1963
Box 5501
Tucson, Arizona

Virginia Hoffman, 1963
3114 W. Tucana
Tucson, Arizona

Myrtle Johnson, 1963
455 Pahokee
Palm Beach Co., Florida

Hilda Johnston, 1963
Box 335
Oracle, Arizona

Enrique Kaneshiro, 1963
Gral. Orbegoso No. 1101
Lima, Peru

Michiko Kashiwagi, 1963
3406 E. Lester
Tucson, Arizona

Frances Kelly, 1963
4266 E. Los Robles
Tucson, Arizona

Margie A. Lemon, 1962
2010 E. Spring St.
Tucson, Arizona

Julieta Leon, 1963
Hermosillo, Sonora
Mexico

William Lockett, 1963
2551 W. Marie Place
Tucson, Arizona

Vivian Lukosky, 1961, 1963
655 11th St.
Douglas, Arizona

Lilia Martinez, 1963
1712 S. Columbus Blvd.
Tucson, Arizona

Paul McCabe, 1963
Window Rock, Arizona

Lillian McCarty, 1963
215 N. Langley
Tucson, Arizona

Pearle S. Meadows, 1962
1202 North Torino
Tucson, Arizona

Dora Baez Medina, 1962
Melchor Ocampo 76 PTE
Mexico

Sr. Maria Mendez, 1963
Lourdes Academy
Nogales, Arizona

Stella M. Mickelson, 1962
3174 Terra Alta
Tucson, Arizona

Jean Murray, 1961-1963
2901 Jackson Drive
Tucson, Arizona

Alice Orr, 1961
1220 S. Wilson Drive
Tucson, Arizona

Yvonne Pointer, 1962
1010 Hillside Road
Northbrook, Illinois

David Perkins, 1963
Whiteriver, Arizona

Anita Pfeiffer, 1961
1024 North Euclid Ave.
Tucson, Arizona

Ethel M. Preach, 1962
2832 North Mountain
Tucson, Arizona

Jeannette Rasanaririni, 1963
VH 27 Ambatorinsky Tananarive
Madagascar

Sr. Mary Eliz. Ruiz, 1963
Lourdes Academy
Nogales, Arizona

Howard M. Russell, 1962
905 North D Street
Eloy, Arizona

Elmon Sapp, 1963
1202 E. Circle Drive
Tucson, Arizona

Grace Scott, 1962
1735 Coolidge Ct.
Eau Claire, Wisconsin

Helen Scroggins, 1963
Arizona Western College
Yuma, Arizona

Ramona R. Seibert, 1962
2455 North Treat
Tucson, Arizona

Emma Alyce Serna, 1962-1963
4449 East 3rd St.
Tucson, Arizona

Harriet J. Shaeffer, 1961
2215 South Tucson Avenue
Tucson, Arizona

Theodosia K. Smith, 1962
Navajo Reservation
Tohatchi, New Mexico

Sabit Thapa, 1963
463 Lainshour
Rathmandu, Nepal

Russell Tucker, 1961
Shiprock, New Mexico

Helen D. Wolfe, 1962
8230 East Koralee Place
Tucson, Arizona